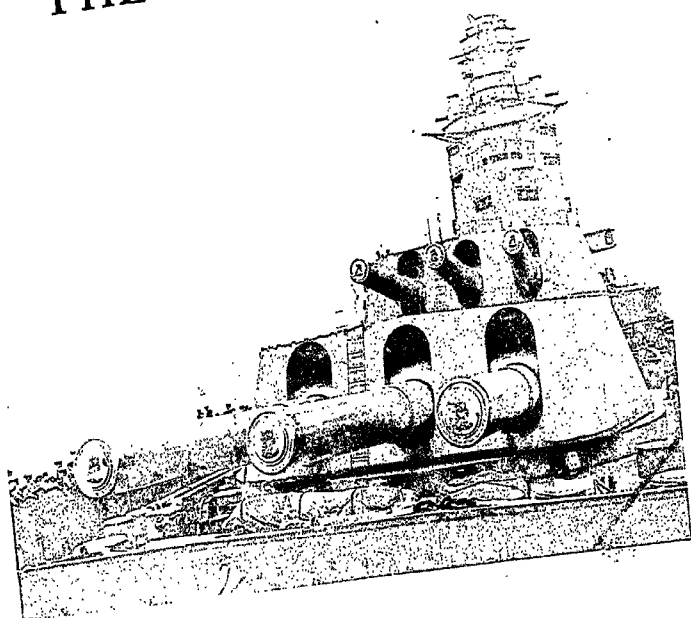
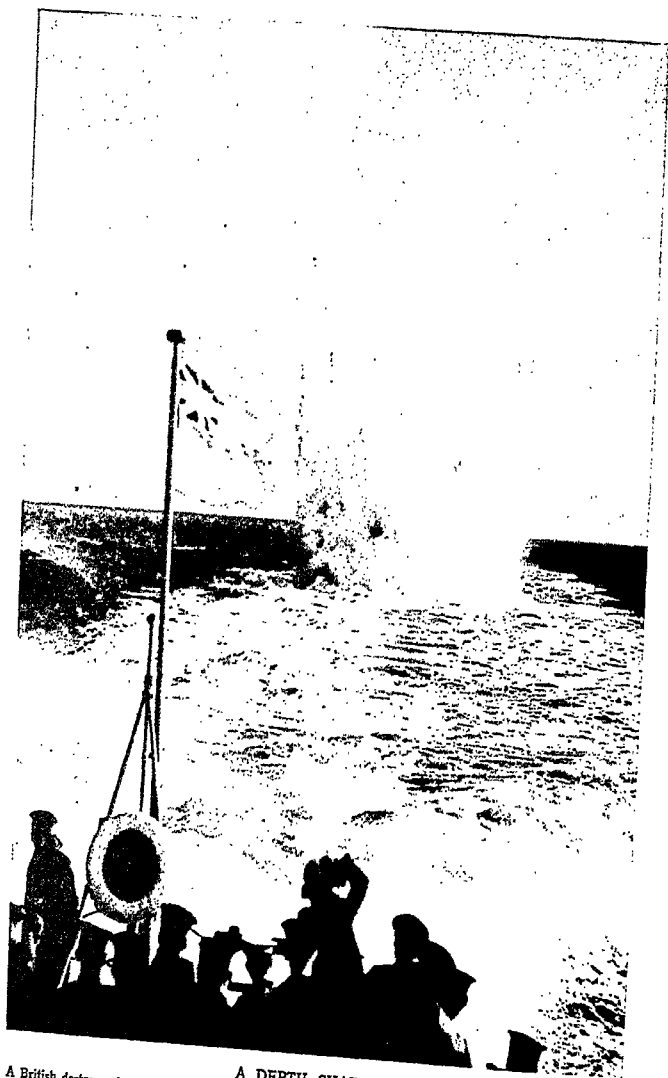


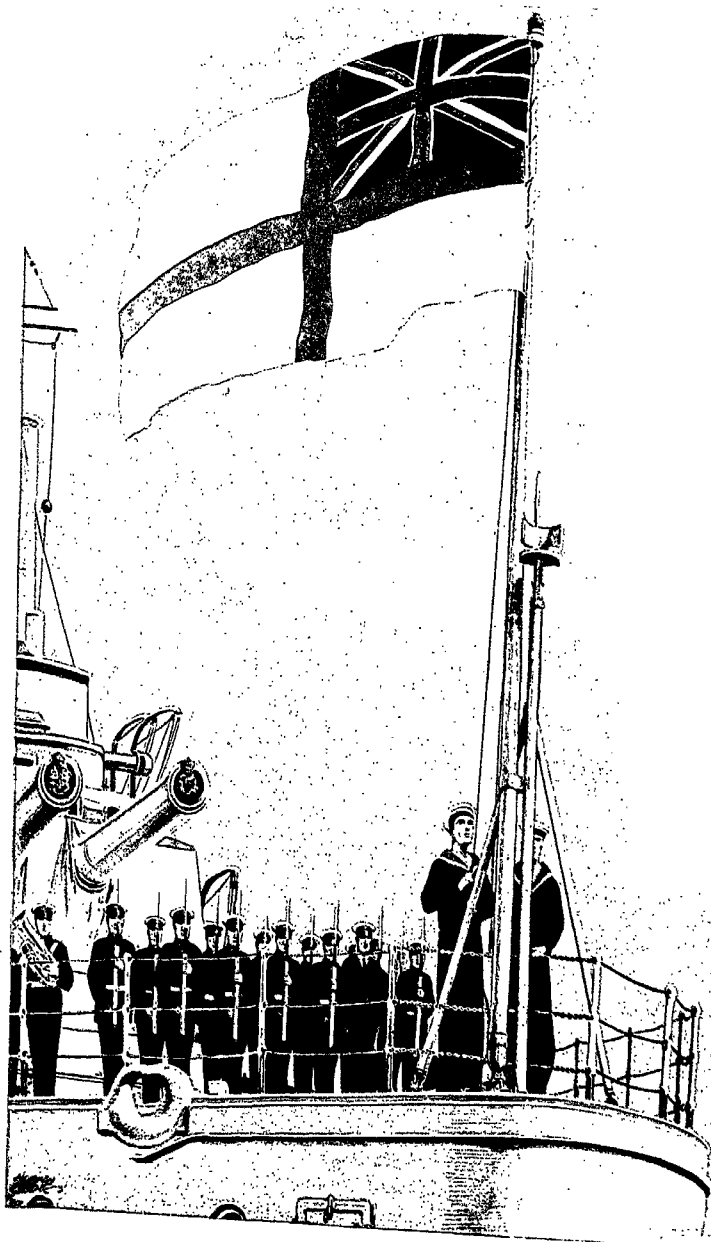
THE WONDER BOOK OF THE NAVY





A DEPTH CHARGE.
A British destroyer has dropped a depth charge. Woe betide the submarine within striking distance of the explosion.

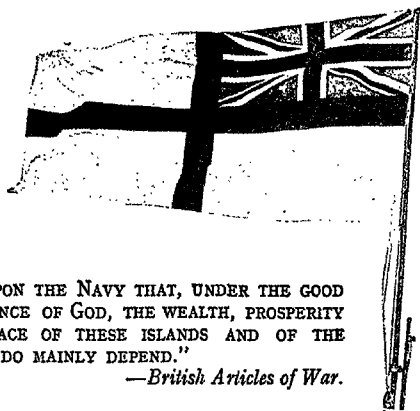
(Fox Photos.)



HOISTING THE COLOURS

THE WONDER BOOK OF THE NAVY

WITH FOREWORD BY THE LATE
EARL JELlicoe



"IT IS UPON THE NAVY THAT, UNDER THE GOOD
PROVIDENCE OF GOD, THE WEALTH, PROSPERITY
AND PEACE OF THESE ISLANDS AND OF THE
EMPIRE DO MAINLY DEPEND."

—*British Articles of War.*

EIGHT COLOUR PLATES AND NEARLY THREE
HUNDRED PICTURES

EDITED BY HARRY GOLDING

WARD, LOCK & CO., LIMITED
LONDON AND MELBOURNE

leather is then dyed. The skins of shark, seen often, seal and other animals have also been used for making this leather. Shagreen was formerly employed for covering sword scabbards; it is now used to a limited extent as a covering for camera boxes, instrument cases and various like articles.

SHAH JERAN, *shah je han* (about 1592-1665), the fifth Mogul emperor of Delhi, India, who reigned from 1627 to 1658, when he was deposed by his son Aurangzeb. During his reign the Mogul Empire attained great magnificence. He founded Delhi, where he erected a group of splendid buildings which constituted the imperial palace, one of which housed the celebrated peacock throne. He built the Pearl Mosque and the Taj Mahal, at Agra, as a mausoleum to his favorite wife See **Taj Mahal**.

SHAKERS or SHAKING QUAKERS, a sect which arose at Manchester, England, about 1747, and which has since been transferred to America. The formal designation which they give themselves is the United Society of Believers in Christ's Second Appearing, that of Shakers was given to them in ridicule because they shook their bodies during their religious services.

The founder of the sect as it at present exists was Ann Lee, an expelled Quaker, born in Manchester in 1756. She came to America in 1774 with seven followers and formed the first settlement at Watervliet, near Albany, N. Y. In 1787 the society was made communal, the first organization on that basis in the United States. There remain but few Shaker communities in America, mainly in the New England states.

Shakers believe are similar in many respects to those of the Quakers. They believe in the immediate revelations of the Holy Ghost (gifts); maintain that the old law is abolished, the new dispensation begun; that intercourse between heaven and earth is restored; that God is king and governor; that the sin of Adam is atoned and that man is made free from all errors except his own; that every human being will be saved; that the earth is heaven, now soiled and stained but ready to be brightened by love and labor into its original state.

At first the religious ceremonies were of the most violent, wild and irregular nature—leaping, shouting and clapping of the hands; now the Shakers move in a regular, uniform dance, to the singing of a hymn, and march



SHAKESPEARE, *shayk speer*, **WILLIAM** (1564-1616), an English poet and dramatist, the greatest of English poets, one of the greatest of the world's poets.

He was born at Stratford-upon-Avon, a town in Warwickshire. His father was John Shakespeare, a burgess of Stratford, who combined his business as a butcher, a wool-stapler and a glover, with dealings in timber and corn. His mother was Mary Arden, daughter of Robert Arden of Wilmecote, a prosperous yeoman farmer. They had eight children (four sons and four daughters), of whom William was the third. When the third child was born, and for some time afterward, the family was prosperous, for in 1568 John Shakespeare was high bailiff of Stratford. From this fact it may safely be inferred that his son received the best education which the grammar school of Stratford could give. After the school period the first absolutely authentic event in Shakespeare's life is his marriage with Anne Hathaway, daughter of a yeoman in the hamlet of Shottery, near Stratford. The marriage bond is dated November 28, 1582, at which date Shakespeare was in his nineteenth year, while, from the date on her tombstone, it is known that his wife was eight years older. On May 26 following, their first child, named Susanna, was baptized, and in February of 1585, a son and daughter were born, who received the names of Hamnet and Judith.

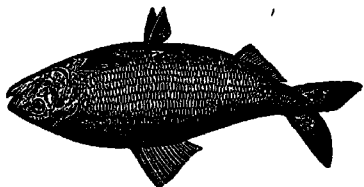
around the hall of worship, clapping their hands in regular time. The societies are divided into smaller communities, called families, each of which has its own male and female head. Celibacy is enjoined upon all, and married persons on entering the community must live together as brother and sister. All property is held in common, and all bind themselves to take part in the family business—the men either as farmers, builders, gardeners, smiths, potters, or as followers of some other handicraft; the women engage in some household occupation or in the work of education, and never interest themselves in political affairs.

SHAD FLY. See MAY FLY.

SHADOW. See LIGHT.

SHAFER, WILLIAM BURNS (1835-1906), an American soldier who distinguished himself as commander of land operations in Cuba during the Spanish-American war in 1898. He was born at Galesburg, Mich., and was reared on a farm. At the outbreak of the Civil War he entered the Union army, and before its close was promoted brigadier-general for gallantry in action. After that war he entered the regular army serving in various posts until the outbreak of the Spanish-American War. In that brief conflict he commanded operations which resulted in the surrender of the Spanish army at Santiago. Later he commanded various departments, and retired, in 1901, with the rank of major.

English statesman and philanthropist, first Earl of (1821-1883), ANTHONY COOPER, *shows our way*

[illegible]

PLANTATION.
SHAD, a good fish of the family of her-
rings, including two species—the *common*,
or *office*, shad, and the *white* shad. The com-
mon shad inhabits the sea near mouth of

entitled *The Heart of the Arctic*. In 1914 Shackleton sailed on another expedition which was destined to be the most thrilling in the annals of polar exploration. His ship, the *Endurance*, was crushed in an ice pack; the party was forced to abandon ice boats, the men finally were rescued and returned to England in 1917. Shackleton led various squalid honors. See SOUTH POLAR EX-

1901. In 1906 he was defeated in an attempt to enter Parliament as a representative of Dundee. The following years he spent in command of an expedition in the Antarctic regions. In 1909 he reached latitude 80° 23', a point 111 miles from the pole. Lack of supplies compelled him to turn back. This expedition, however, was of considerable importance, as it resulted in a gain of accurate knowledge of the south polar region. On his return to England Shackleton was knighted. His published account of his expedition is

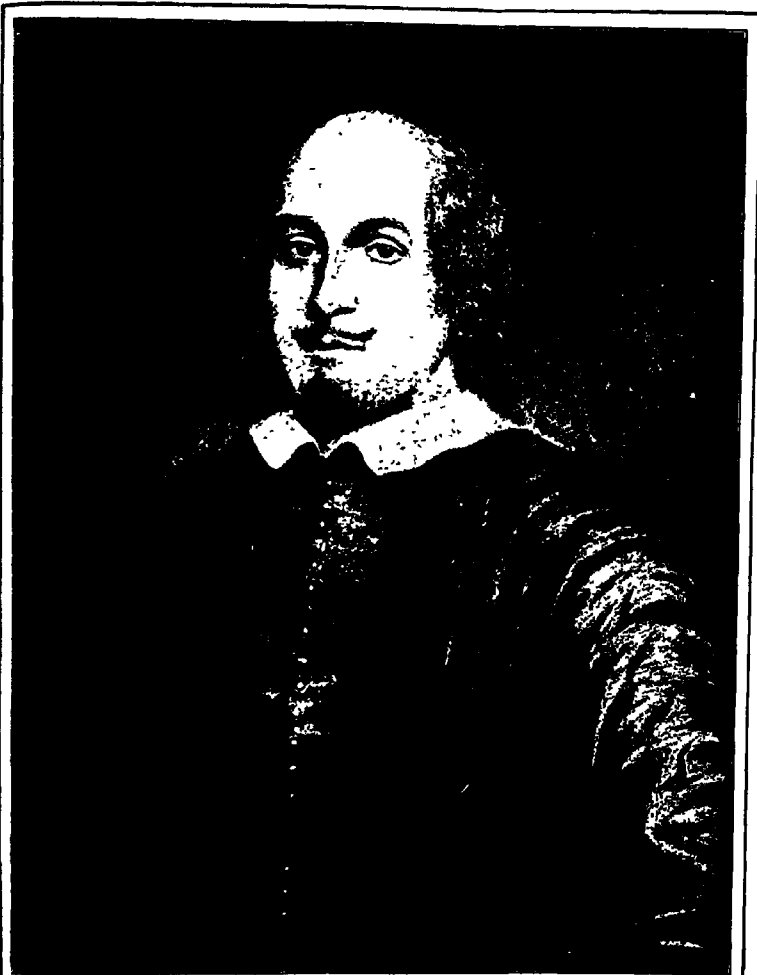
Begins His Literary Career. From this date until Shakespeare was established in London as a player and dramatist, there is a gap of seven years, during which we are again left to tradition and conjecture. To account for his leaving Stratford it has been suggested that his marriage with Anne Hathaway had proved unsuitable and unhappy, but there is no positive evidence in support of this belief. Then, again, there is the famous legend of the deer stealing, for which it is said he was prosecuted by Sir Thomas Lucy, of Charlecote. In retaliation he wrote, according to Rowe, a satirical ballad, which so enraged the baronet that Shakespeare thought it prudent to leave Stratford. The more probable reason is that his increasing domestic responsibilities, together with the acquaintance he presumably had with the players from London who visited Stratford, induced him to push his fortune in the city. He soon became a well-known player and a dramatist of such distinction as to call forth an envious reference in 1592 from a fellow dramatist. This is found in *A Groatsworth of Wit*, written by Robert Greene, and published a few weeks after his death by Chetile.

Growing Fame and Prosperity. The first certain date in Shakespeare's life after his arrival in London is 1593. In that year he published his *Venus and Adonis*, with a dedication of this, "the first heir of my invention," to Henry Wriothesley, Earl of Southampton; and in the following year he dedicated to the same patron his other poem of *The Rape of Lucrece*. As suggesting that this patronage was substantial in its nature, there is a story to the effect that the earl at one time gave to Shakespeare £1,000 (\$5,000) to complete some purchase he had on hand. Whatever truth there may be in the story, it is certain that about this time Shakespeare began to grow in fortune and in fame. In connection with this increase of fortune it is noteworthy that the affairs of his father, John Shakespeare, seem also to have improved, for in 1596 he applied at the herald office for a grant of arms, which application was conceded in the following year. In 1596 Shakespeare's only son Hamnet died and was buried at Stratford, where the family continued to reside. The tradition is that Shakespeare visited his native town once a year during the time that he lived in London. However this may be, it is clear that

his interest in Stratford was not founded entirely in sentiment or family affection, for in 1597 he bought there a substantial house, called New Place, and in a return of grain and malt he is described as the holder of ten quarters. There is also documentary evidence to prove that he was possessed of property in the parish of Saint Helen's, Bishopgate.

While these things indicate the growth of his material prosperity, there is proof that his fame as a lyrical poet and dramatist was also being securely established, for in 1598 there was published the *Palladis Tamia*, by Francis Meres, in which twelve of his plays are enumerated, and in which mention is made of his "sugared sonnets among his private friends." Yet, notwithstanding this literary activity, he was still a player, for when Jonson's comedy of *Every Man in His Humor* was produced in 1598, Shakespeare took part in the performance. In the following year he was a shareholder in the Globe Theater, and his practical turn is still further evidenced by the fact that he bought (1602) 107 acres of arable land in the parish of Old Stratford for £320 and acquired (1605) for £440 the unexpired term of a lease of the tithes of Stratford, Old Stratford, Bishopston and Welcombe. Along with these material possessions he received the style and title of William Shakespeare, Gentleman, of Stratford-upon-Avon; but in London he was still a player in 1603, since when Ben Jonson's play of *Sejanus* was produced in that year, Shakespeare occupied a place in the list of actors. His father had died in 1601; his eldest daughter Susanna had married, in 1607, a practicing physician named John Hall; in the same year his brother Edmund, who was also a player, died in London and was buried in Southwark, and in 1608 his mother, Mary Shakespeare, followed her husband to the grave. In February, 1616, his youngest daughter, Judith, married.

Death and Burial. On the twenty-fifth of March, 1616, Shakespeare executed his will; and in another month he was dead. The cause of his death is unknown, but in Stratford there was a tradition "that Shakespeare, Drayton and Ben Jonson had a merry meeting and, it seems, drank too hard, for Shakespeare died of a fever there contracted." By his will he left the bulk of his property to Susanna Hall and her husband, his daughter Judith, his sister Joan and his godson, while



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

From the portrait, Stratford-upon-Avon, England

"Myriad-minded Shakespeare," the greatest literary genius of all time and all lands. He speaks a universal language and makes a supreme appeal to all people. Next to the Bible he has informed the heart and mind of mankind during the three centuries since his death.

"His life was gentle; and the elements

"So mixed in him that Nature might stand up,

"And say to all the world, **THIS WAS A MAN!**"



STRATFORD-UPON-AVON

Immortal Shakespeare's birthplace. In this pleasant country, by this gently-gliding stream, the dramatist and poet revelled in that close association with nature which made him so appreciative an interpreter of her many moods



SHAKESPEARE'S BIRTHPLACE

A typical example of house architecture in "the brave days of Elizabeth." The house as it appears today (restored). For all who speak the English tongue, this house will be forever a shrine

Outline on Shakespeare

BIRTH.

1. Born at Stratford-on-Avon, 1564.

PARENTS.

1. Of humble origin; respectable tradespeople; financially well-to-do.
2. His mother was Mary Arden

EDUCATION.

1. Best education grammar school offered.
2. Studied humanity and nature.

MARRIAGE

1. Nineteen years of age.

EARLY CAREER

1. In 1592 established in London, engaged in literary work, and also took some of the leading parts in plays.

CHARACTER

1. Ben Jonson said: "I loved the man and do honor to his memory, on this side idolatry, as much as any. He was indeed honest and of an open nature; had an excellent phantasy, brave notions and gentle expressions."

WRITINGS.

1st Period.

- a Experimenting in characterization; looseness in construction. Feeling after his powers and testing them
- b Writings—Love's Labor Lost, The Comedy of Errors, A Midsummer Night's Dream, Richard III.

2d Period.

- a With increased assurance follow his brilliant portrayal of English history and comedy of life in general, and one great romantic tragedy, King Richard II.
- b. Writings—Parts I and II of Henry IV, King John, Romeo and Juliet, The Merchant of Venice, Much Ado About Nothing, As You Like It, etc., etc.

3d Period.

- a Master of all the resources of his art.
- b. Personal experiences portrayed in writings. Comedy becomes bitter; tragedies black with human experiences.
- c Writings—Measure for Measure, Julius Caesar, Hamlet, King Lear, etc., etc

4th Period

- a. Attained serenity of mind, enabling him to write his last romantic plays.
- b. Writings—Cymbeline, The Winter's Tale, The Tempest, King Henry VIII

DEATH.

1. Died in 1616.
2. Buried in Stratford church; a monument with bust and epitaph was soon afterward set up.

NONDRAMATIC WRITINGS

1. Venus and Adonis, The Rape of Lucrece, Sonnets, A Lover's Complaint.

a few friends and fellow players were also remembered. To his wife he bequeathed specifically the "second best bed with the furniture," for there would probably be ample provision made for her, as a widow had right of dower in her husband's freehold property. He was buried in the chancel of Stratford church, on the north wall of which a monument, with bust and epitaph, was soon afterward set up. Over his grave was placed a slab with the inscription:

Good friend, for Jesus sake forbear
To digg the dust enclosed heare,
Bleste be the man that spares thes stones
And curst be he that moves my bones

Tradition says that these words were written by Shakespeare himself shortly before his death, but of this there is no proof. As for Shakespeare's character, as estimated by his contemporaries, it found fit expression in the words of Ben Jonson. "I loved the man," he said, "and do honor to his memory, on this side idolatry, as much as any. He was indeed honest, and of an open and free nature, had an excellent phantasy, brave notions and gentle expressions."

The Plays. In classifying the plays of Shakespeare by the aid of such chronology as is possible, modern critics have found it instructive to divide his career as a dramatist into four marked stages. The *first period* (1588-1593) marks the inexperience of the dramatist and gives evidence of experiment in characterization, looseness in the construction of plot, with a certain symmetrical artificiality in the dialogue. To this stage belong *Titus Andronicus* and Part I of *Henry VI*, both of which, it is thought, Shakespeare merely retouched; *Love's Labour Lost*; *The Comedy of Errors*; *The Two Gentlemen of Verona*; *A Midsummer Night's Dream*; parts II and III of *Henry VI* in which it is thought probable that Marlowe had a hand, and *King Richard III*. The *second period* (1594-1601) is that in which, with increased security in his art, the dramatist sets forth his brilliant pageant of English history, his brightest conception of the comedy of life and more than proves his capacity for deeper things by one great romantic tragedy. To this stage belong *King Richard II*, parts I and II of *Henry IV*, *King Henry V*, *King John*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *The Taming of the Shrew*, *Merry Wives of Windsor*, *Much Ado About Nothing*, *As You Like It* and *Twelfth Night*.

The *third period* (1602-1608) shows that the dramatist, having mastered all the resources of his art and tasted life to the full, is strangely fascinated by mortal mischance, so that even his comedy becomes bitter, while his tragedy is black with the darkest tempests of passionate human experience. To this stage in his development belong *All's Well That Ends Well*, *Measure for Measure*, *Troilus and Cressida*, *Julius Caesar*, *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear*, *Macbeth*, *Antony and Cleopatra*, *Coriolanus* and *Timon of Athens*. The *fourth period* (1609-1613) is that in which Shakespeare, after having passed through a season which was probably darkened by his own personal experiences, attained the glad serenity of mind which enabled him to write his last romantic plays. To this period belong *Pericles*, which is only partly from Shakespeare's hand, *Cymbeline*, *The Winter's Tale*, *The Tempest* and *King Henry VIII*.

Other Writings. Of non-dramatic pieces Shakespeare was the author of *Venus and Adonis*, *The Rape of Lucrece*, the *Sonnets* and *A Lover's Complaint*. It is agreed that only a few of the poems in the collection published under the name of *The Passionate Pilgrim* were written by him. There has been much discussion as to how many of the plays usually credited to Shakespeare were really written by him, and systematic attempts have been made to prove that Bacon, not Shakespeare, was the author of the greater part of them. Such a theory is generally regarded as without foundation. See *half-tone*, STRATFORD-UPON-AVON.

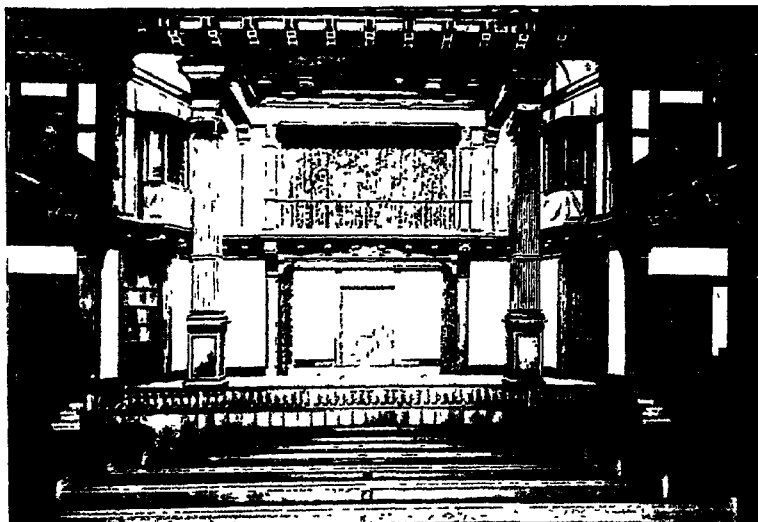
SHALE, the solidified mud of past geological ages. It has a slaty structure and usually contains a large proportion of clay. Shale is frequently found deposited between seams of coal and commonly bears fossil impressions. The variety known as bituminous shale burns with flame and yields an oil, which, mixed with paraffin, is of great commercial importance. Alum is manufactured from alum shales.

SHATLER, NATHANIEL SOUTHGATE (1841-1906), an American geologist, educator and author, born in Newport, Ky. He was graduated from the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard University, served for a time in the Federal army during the Civil War, and later became dean of the Lawrence Scientific School. For seven years he had charge of the geological survey of Kentucky, and in 1884



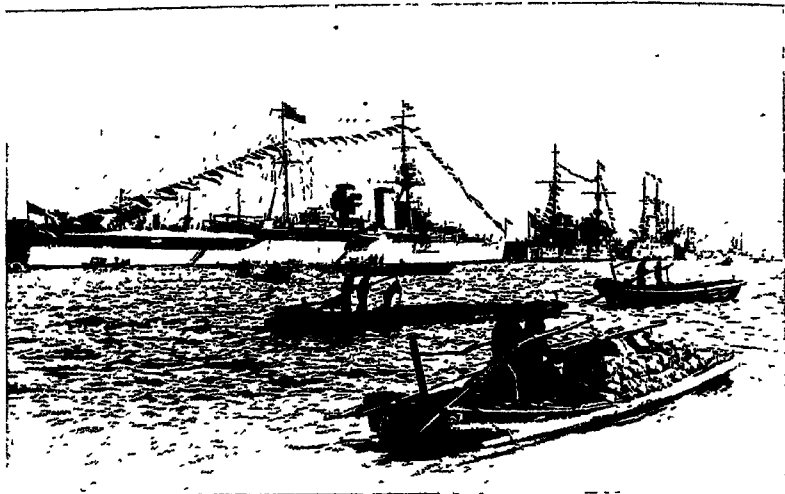
Acme

SHAKESPEARE BIRTHDAY FESTIVAL AT STRATFORD-ON-AVON
The procession leaving Shakespeare's birthplace.



Underwood & Underwood

A BEAUTIFUL RECONSTRUCTION OF AN ELIZABETHAN PLAY HOUSE
In the Folger Shakespeare Memorial Library, Washington, D. C.



Pacific & Atlantic

WARLIKE SCENES AT SHANGHAI

Above: Foreign flagships in harbor—British, French, American and Japanese.

Below: French armored cars prepared for action in the French concession at Shanghai.

joined the staff of the United States Geological Survey of the Atlantic Coast Division. He was the author of many books, notably *The United States of America; A Study of the American Commonwealth; Aspects of the Earth, Sea, and Land; First Book in Zoology; Man and the Earth*, and *Outlines of the Earth's History*.

SHAMANISM, *shah'man iz'm*, a general name applied to the idolatrous religions of a number of tribes or clans, particularly in Northern Asia. The *shaman* is a priest who performs sacrifices and works magical spells to keep the populace on good terms with the gods. In addition to belief in a supreme being, the worshippers add the belief that the government of the world is in the hands of a number of secondary gods, whom it is necessary to propitiate by magic rites and spells. The "medicine man" of North American Indian, with his uncanny rites, exerted a similar influence.

SHAMOKIN, Pa., in Northumberland County, forty miles nearly north of Harrisburg, on the Philadelphia & Reading and the Pennsylvania railroads. It is in the anthracite coal fields and also contains foundries, machine shops, silk and knitting, flour and planing mills, skirt and hose factories and wagon shops. There is a Carnegie Library. The town was laid out in 1835, and the borough was incorporated in 1864. Population, 1920, 21,204, in 1930, 20,274, a loss of 5 per cent.

SHAMROCK, the national emblem of Ireland, said to have been used by Saint Patrick to exemplify the doctrine of the Trinity, its three divisions illustrating his idea that the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit can be three and yet be one God.

The shamrock has a leaf which has three leaflets. It is generally supposed to be the plant called white clover, but others think it to be the wood sorrel. The plant commonly called the shamrock in Ireland is one of the hop clovers, a slender, trailing species, with small, yellow heads.

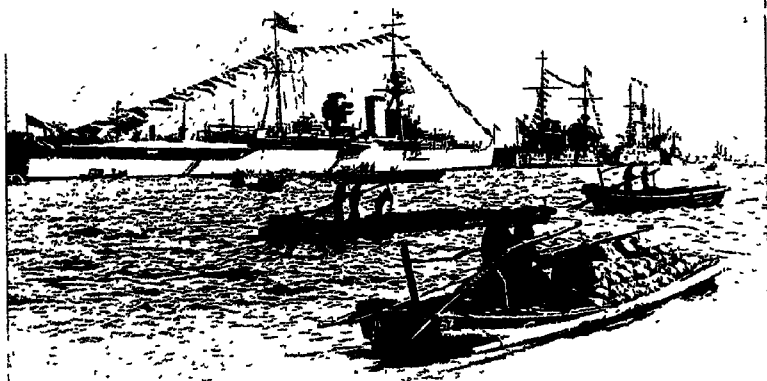
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northeast of the Chinese quarter is a large foreign settlement, occupied by British, French, Germans and Americans. Along the water front this part of the city presents the appearance of a modern European or American town. It has theaters, newspaper offices, club houses, street railways and electric light plants. A fine esplanade skirts the river and a park lies on the opposite side. This portion of the city also contains a fine cathedral, municipal offices and hospitals. The governing authorities of the foreign settlement are chosen from Americans, English and French who reside there, and the residents are under the protection of the consuls of their respective governments.

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SHANNON, the largest river of Ireland, 250 miles in length, which flows into the Atlantic Ocean through a series of beautiful lakes, or loughs, along the southwestern coast. In the last sixty miles of its course, the Shannon becomes a tidal estuary, which at Limerick is thirteen miles wide. The river is navigable from Lough Allen to Limerick; two canals which connect it with Dublin have greatly increased its importance.

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Shantung province has an area of 55,970 square miles, about that of the state of Wisconsin, and a population of 38,247,000. It is of economic value chiefly because of its mineral resources, which include four great coal fields and profitable iron mines. During the period of German concession a railway was built from Tsing-tau to Weihien, and westward to Tsunan-fu. All German leases are now held by Japan, which, however, does not hold political sovereignty over the province. Shantung is of historic interest as containing the birthplace and the grave of Confucius. See K'IAO-CHAU; WORLD WAR.

SHARK, a group of flesh-eating fishes, the largest, most formidable and voracious of deep-sea monsters. They are common in almost all oceans, although most abundant in warm waters. The body is rounded and tapering, and is sometimes forty feet or more in length. The mouth is large, and is armed with several rows of compressed, sharp-edged teeth. The body is covered with a rough skin, and instead of scales, it has many tiny denticles. This skin is called *shagreen*, and it has a commercial value as a polisher of wood of fine grain, and as a covering for boxes (see SHAGREEN).

Sharks swiftly pursue other marine animals, and seem not to care whether their prey be living or dead. They often follow vessels and shoals of fishes in their periodical migrations.

Species of Sharks. The largest species is the *whale shark*, often as much as fifty feet long. The *basking shark*, found chiefly in the Arctic Ocean, sometimes attains the length of forty feet, but it is not as ferocious as others of this group. The *white shark* is one of the most formidable and voracious; it is common in many of the warmer seas, reaching a length of over thirty feet. The *hammer-headed sharks*, which are chiefly found in tropical seas, are very voracious and often attack man. They are noteworthy for the remarkable shape of the head, which resembles somewhat a double-headed hammer, the eyes being at the extremities. Other forms are the *porbeagle*, the *blue shark*, the *fox shark*, the *sea fox*, the *sea ape*, or *thresher*, and the *Greenland*, or *northern*, *shark*. In China and Japan the smaller sharks serve as food, and in China and India the fins form an important article of commerce, as they contain a gelatin used in making soup. Oil is made from the livers of some species.

Shark Fishing. Shark fishing constitutes an important industry on the coasts of Lapland and Norway, as well as China, India and Africa. In Norway sharks are caught as far as 150 miles from shore. Near the fishing boat a barrel pierced with holes and filled with oil is sunk. The oil attracts the shark, which is then caught by chains and hooks baited with salted seal meat, or in tarred nets. A great struggle ensues between man and the powerful monster before it is stunned by repeated heavy blows upon the head.

SHARON, *shair'on*, Pa., in Mercer County, seventy-five miles northwest of Pittsburgh, near the Ohio boundary line, on the Shenango River and on the Pennsylvania, the New York Central, the Pittsburgh & Lake Erie and the Erie railroads. Coal is extensively mined in the vicinity, and there are rolling mills, furnaces, foundries, boiler works, machine shops and other factories. Stone quarrying is also an important industry. It was a munitions center during the World War. It was settled in 1795, and incorporated in 1841. Population, 1920, 21,747; in 1930, 25,908, a gain of 19 per cent.

SHASTA, *Mount*, a lofty, snow-covered conical mountain, rising 10,000 feet above the plains of the Sacramento Valley, is a peak of the Sierra Nevada range of California, the summit of which is perpetually covered with snow. It is a typical volcanic mountain, attains the height of 14,350 feet above sea level, and is formed of two peaks. About 1,400 feet below the summit is a crater three-fourths of a mile in diameter and 2,500 feet deep. On the northern slope glaciers of considerable size are found. Other glaciers have left traces of their former existence in many glacial lakes and ponds.

SHAW, ALBERT (1857-), an American publicist and editor, born at Shandon, Ohio, and educated at Iowa (now Grinnell) College and at Johns Hopkins University. After several years of editorial writing and study abroad, in 1890 he established the *American Review of Reviews*, and as editor of the publication became known as one of the foremost editors of current-events periodicals. As a writer on political science he became equally well known. Among his books on municipal government and economics are *Coöperation in the Northwest*, *Municipal Government in Great Britain*, *Municipal Government in Continental Europe* and *Local Government in Illinois*.

SHAW, ANNA HOWARD (1847-1919), an American physician, lecturer and writer. Although an Englishwoman by birth, she was an American by education and long residence, having lived in the United States from early childhood. She was educated at Albion (Mich.) College and at Boston University, and received a medical and a theological degree. She was ordained in the Protestant Methodist Church in 1880, and she spent many years in the pulpit. Dr. Shaw gained her greatest prominence as an advocate of and lecturer on woman suffrage, chiefly from 1904 to 1915. In the latter year she published her autobiography, *The Story of a Pioneer*. During the World War she served as chairman of the Woman's Advisory Committee of the Council of National Defense. She died in the midst of active labors.

SHAW, GEORGE BERNARD, (1856-), a prominent Irish critic, essayist and dramatist. He was born in Dublin and in 1876 settled in London, where his critical writings soon brought him recognition. He took an active interest in politics as an advocate of Socialism, was an early member of the Fabian Society and gained notoriety as a pamphleteer and street orator. He wrote four novels—*The Irrational*

Knot, *Love among the Artists*, *Cashel Byron's Profession* and *An Unsocial Socialist*—all of indifferent merit. In 1920 and 1921 he published *Heartbreak House* and *Back to Methuselah*. Of his critical writings, *The Quintessence of Ibsenism* and *The Perfect Wagnerite* are noteworthy. His first play, *Widowers' Houses*, produced in 1892, was followed by about twenty works for the stage, hardly any of which can properly be called plays, inasmuch as they ignore many principles of dramatic construction. The plays which have aroused most interest are *The Philanderer*, *Candida*, *Major Barbara*, *Man and Superman*, *The Doctor's Dilemma*, *Getting Married*, *The Shewing-Up of Blanco Posnet* and *Fanny's First Play*. One of his best productions, *Arms and the Man*, was rendered into a delightful operetta, *The Chocolate Soldier*, yet popular.



GEORGE BERNARD
SHAW

SHAWNEE, an Indian tribe of Algonquian stock, who lived originally in South Carolina along the Savannah River. The Shawnees were vigorous and warlike, and numbered among their chiefs the famous Tecumseh (which see). They made unsuccessful attempts to resist white settlement. There are now about 1,400 in Oklahoma.

SHAWNEE, OKLA., in Pottawatomie County, nearly forty miles southeast of Oklahoma City, on the North Canadian River and the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé, the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific and the Oklahoma City, Ada & Atoka railroads. The Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific shops are located here. There are cotton gins and compresses and oil mills. The city has the Baptist University, the Catholic University, Saint Gregory's College, and a Carnegie Library. There is a fine city auditorium and convention hall. Population, 1930, 23,283.

SHAYS' REBELLION, an insurrection in Western Massachusetts in 1786-1787, precipitated by the financial distress which followed the Revolutionary War. The special grievances of the insurgents were the high salaries paid to officials, excessive taxes and exorbitant fees of lawyers and officers. In September, 1786, a mob of about six hundred men gathered at Springfield under Daniel Shays, forced the supreme court to adjourn and attempted to capture the arsenal. The state militia under General Benjamin Lincoln soon overwhelmed them, and by February the revolt was quelled. Ten of the leaders were condemned to death, but were later pardoned by Governor John Hancock.

SHEBOYGAN, Wis., the county seat of Sheboygan County, fifty-two miles north of Milwaukee, on Lake Michigan, at the mouth of the Sheboygan River, and on the Chicago & North Western railroad. It is an important shipping point. There are two airports, one three miles west. There are large warehouses, coal docks, fisheries, chair and furniture factories, foundries, machine shops, carriage works, plumbing supplies, brickyards and many other establishments. The city has a state fish hatchery, a public library, a good Federal building, a county asylum for the insane, a home for the friendless and the Saint Nicholas and city hospitals. There are 14 parks. The place was settled in 1836, the village was incorporated in 1846, and the city was chartered in 1853. Population, 1920, 30,955. In 1930, 39,261.

SHEEP, a cud-chewing animal, closely related to the goat, and one of the most useful of domesticated animals. Its wool is made into clothing, its skin is manufactured into leather and its flesh and milk are used for food. There are a number of varieties, but all are included under the classes known as coarse-wooled, medium-wooled and fine-wooled.

Breeds. There are numerous varieties of domestic sheep, but all can be classified under the following groups.

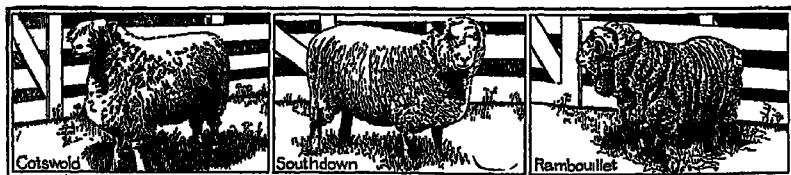
Coarse-Wooled. These breeds are characterized by their long, coarse wool, white faces and legs and straight backs. Their long wool makes them appear larger than they really are. The *Cotswold* is the long-wooled variety best known in America. Other varieties, common in the United Kingdom, are the *Leicester* and the *Lincoln*.

Medium-Wooled. The medium-wooled breeds are usually large in size and have compact fleeces, the wool being about one-half the length of that of the coarse-wooled breeds. One of the best known of these is the *Southdown*, which is easily distinguished by its large, compact body and its brown face and legs. Other valuable medium-wool breeds are the *Hampshire* and the *Shropshire*, both

states, particularly in Montana, Wyoming and Arizona. The *Rambouillet*, imported from France, is larger and stronger than the Merino, and is fast becoming a favorite with American growers.

Other Breeds. There are numerous other breeds of sheep, but with one or two exceptions they are of no economic importance. One of these is the sheep from which the so-called fur known as *astrakhan* and *Persian lamb* is obtained. The wool of this sheep is very fine and curly, which gives these furs a peculiar appearance. It is not known from what wild species the domestic varieties were bred. Wild sheep, such as the *Bighorn*, of the Rocky Mountains, are still found in the mountainous regions of Europe, Asia and America. It is probable that all wild sheep had horns, but they have now disappeared from the ewes of all domestic breeds except the *Dorset* and from the rams of most breeds.

Where Sheep are Raised. Domestic sheep are found in all parts of the civilized world, but they are most extensively raised in the temperate regions, where they are kept chiefly for the wool and flesh. The first sheep were brought to America by Columbus in 1493. The Spaniards introduced them into Mexico



somewhat larger than the Southdown. The Hampshire has become a favorite breed in America. The medium-wooled breeds are valuable for both wool and mutton, and are very generally raised.

Fine-Wooled. The *Merino* is the most important of the fine-wooled breeds. This sheep was introduced into America from Spain, where it has been bred for many centuries. It is small in size and has short legs, and the skin is wrinkled about the neck and shoulders. The wool is short, very fine and quite oily. It is the most valuable wool taken from sheep, and a fine cloth is manufactured from it. The *Merino* is delicate and will thrive only in a dry climate. These sheep are raised in large numbers in Australia, in New Zealand and in some of the Rocky Mountain

and Florida, and from these early flocks large herds descended. Other breeds were also brought by the English into the northern colonies, so that early in the history of the country the farms were stocked with sheep. Australia, New Zealand, Argentina, the Union of South Africa, Uruguay, Russia, the United Kingdom, France, Spain, India and the United States are the chief wool-producing countries of the world. In the United States, Montana, Wyoming, New Mexico and Ohio are the leading states. There are about 50,000,000 sheep in the United States, and about 17,500,000 are slaughtered annually. The yearly production of wool is about 420,000,000 pounds. Canada has over 3,000,000 sheep. See MEAT PACKING; MUTTON; WOOL.

SHEEP LAUREL. See KALMIA.

SHEEPSHEAD, *sheeps'head*, the name of a fish abundant on the Atlantic coast of the United States, highly esteemed as a food. It receives its name from the resemblance of its head to that of a sheep. It is stout and deep-bodied, of a grayish color, with eight vertical bands and dark fins. It is rarely more than thirty inches in length.

SHEFFIELD, ENGLAND, in Yorkshire, 160 miles northwest of London, for more than two centuries noted for its manufacture of high-grade cutlery. The city is beautifully situated on hilly ground, at the junction of the Sheaf and the Don rivers. It has many fine buildings, among which are the ancient parish Church of Saint Peter's, in the Perpendicular style, recently restored; Saint Mary's Catholic Church; Albert Hall, and the Cutler's Hall. Of educational and literary institutions there are the Free Grammar School; the Church of England Educational Institute; University College, formerly the Firth College; the Wesley College; the School of Art, and the Saint George's Museum, founded by Mr. Ruskin. The trade of Sheffield is chiefly connected with cutlery, for which it has long been famous, and the manufacture of all forms of steel, iron and brass work. The steel manufacture includes armor-plating, rails, engine castings and rifles. There are also manufactures of engines, machinery, plated goods, Britannia metal goods, stoves and grates. Sheffield is supposed to have been originally a Roman station. Edward I granted it a charter as a market town in 1296. It is only since 1800 that it has developed such importance as a manufacturing center. Population, 1931, 511,742.

SHEIK, *sheek*, or *shayk*, an Arabic word meaning *aged man* or *elder*. Originally it was a title of dignity belonging to the chiefs of the Arabic tribes, but now is used among Moslems as a title of respect. The superiors of Mohammedan monastic orders and the heads of villages are sometimes called sheiks. The *grand mufti*, the head of the Mohammedan Church in Turkey, is known as the *Sheikh ul Islam*.

SHEKEL, *shek'el*, as originally used in the Bible, is a term referring to a unit of weight. Later it was applied to the coin also. The Hebrew coin, to which reference is most frequently made, was 218 grains in weight. It is said the Jews first issued coins of their own at the time of Simon Maccabaeus, between 141 and 134 B. C. The gold shekel was worth

about \$5.69, the copper about three cents, and the silver about fifty-four cents, the latter seems to have been given most wide circulation. In present day vernacular the word has come to refer to money in general.

SHELDON, CHARLES MONROE (1857-), An American clergyman and writer, born at Wellsville, N. Y., and educated at Brown University and at Andover Theological Seminary. In 1886 he was ordained in the Congregational ministry, subsequently filled pastorates at Waterbury, Vt., and Topeka, Kan., and ultimately became minister at large for his denomination. His experiment of editing the *Topeka Daily Capital* for one week on what he believed to be a Christian policy gained wide publicity. His books are all written with a high moral purpose, and the public reception of some of them was phenomenal. In *His Steps*, written in 1896, reached a sale of more than 8,000,000 copies, but the financial return to the author was only about \$1,000. The publishers erred in their application for copyright, so this protection was invalidated, many publishers at once issued the book in "pirated" editions.

Though *In His Steps* was his seventh book, it was his first great success, though previously *The Crucifixion of Philip Strong* had brought a good measure of fame. During the period of his active writing he was engaged from 1920 to 1925 as editor of *The Christian Herald* and as contributing editor thereafter. His books number more than thirty, other titles include *The Miracle at Mariham*, *Edward Blake*, *The Heart of the World*, *The Narrow Gate*, and *The Richest Man in Kansas*.

SHELL, the hard outer coverings which form the chief protection of many of the lower animals. The Mollusks, the Echinodermata, the Crustacea and even certain insects, as the beetles, and certain mammals, as the armadillos, have such coverings. Perhaps the most interesting and typical shells are those of the mollusks, which are divided into two classes—the univalves (single valves) and the bivalves (two valves). The most common examples of the univalves are the shells of common snails, which assume a variety of graceful shapes and beautiful colors. Some are long spirals, tapering to a point; some are tightly wound wheels, like a watch spring, and some are short, round spirals, with wide openings. Some of these shells are delicate, with a pearly luster, while others are heavy.

Of the bivalves—shell formed of two parts, joined by a hinge—the best examples are the clam and oyster shells. The most easily noted characteristics of these very common shells are the different layers of which they are composed—the outer horny layer, or epidermis, and the beautiful inner pearly layer. There are endless varieties of both univalve and bivalve shells, some so small as to be indistinguishable as shells, some very large; and all of these have been put to many uses. They have been used as ornaments by civilized and uncivilized peoples, as material for the making of buttons and other objects, and as money. The study of shells and of shelled animals is called *conchology*.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

Abalone	Cowrie	Mussel
Cameo	Mollusca	Nautilus
Clam	Mother-of-	Oyster
Conch	Pearl	Snail

SHELL, originally a hollow projectile, filled with a bursting charge of gunpowder or other explosive composition and fitted with a fuse by which to fire it at the desired time. Shells are usually made of cast iron or steel, and are elongated.

There are many different kinds and sizes, and the meaning of the term has been expanded to include all projectiles fired from cannons. Shells used in field artillery are constructed differently from those used in the navy. Projectiles used in the navy are designed to penetrate the steel armor of warships, and are very heavy. They have a sharp point and are tempered to the highest degree of hardness. A 12-inch gun fires a projectile weighing 981 pounds, and a 14-inch gun, one weighing 1,400 pounds, for an average distance of twelve miles, although in the World War the Germans built a gun which projected a shell over seventy-five miles, into Paris. Such a projectile has a striking force that will penetrate any armor.

SHELLEY, PERCY BYSSHE (1792-1822), an English poet born at Field Place, Horsham, Sussex, the son of Sir Timothy Shelley, a landed proprietor of ancient family. He was educated at Sion House Academy, Brantford, at Eton and at University College, Oxford. At Sion House and at Eton on account of his temperament he was persecuted by his fellows, and thus he early began to show that fierce hatred of oppression which characterized him throughout his life. While at Oxford he showed himself possessed of

uncommon literary ability; but he fell into disfavor with the authorities on the publication of a pamphlet called *The Necessity of Atheism* and was expelled. In 1811, shortly after his expulsion from college, he eloped to Edinburgh with Harriet Westbrook, the daughter of a retired innkeeper, but sixteen years of age. The marriage turned out unhappily, and after nearly three years of a wandering unsettled life they separated. In November, 1816, Harriet committed suicide by drowning. Shelley was deeply affected by this event, but soon after he married Mary Godwin, with whom he had visited the Continent in 1814.

Partly because his lungs were affected and partly because he feared that he should be deprived of the children of his second marriage, on account of his atheism, as he had been deprived of those of his former marriage, Shelley left England finally in March, 1818, and the whole short remainder of his life was passed in Italy. On July 8, 1822, while he was sailing in the Bay of Spezia, a storm arose and he was drowned. According to the quarantine laws of Tuscany the body was burned, and the ashes were deposited by his friends in the Protestant burying ground of Rome.

From his youth Shelley's life was a constant battle in defense of the radical revolutionary principles he had adopted. He believed in the possibility of establishing an ideal society, in which such institutions as marriage and property should be subordinate to the development of individuals. In some of his poems, *Queen Mab*, his earliest important work, written when he was eighteen, *The Revolt of Islam* and *Prometheus Unbound*, he embodied his beliefs on the reconstruction of society. The poems of Shelley, however, which have remained most popular, are characterized, rather, by a delicate fanciful beauty, than by any openly expressed spirit of revolt. Shelley was one of the great lyric poets of England, and his gift of wonderful melody, grace and lightness shows best in such poems as *Ode to the West Wind*, *The*



PERCY BYSSHE
SHELLEY

Cloud, Ode to Liberty, Ode to a Skylark, To Night and Lanes to an Indian Air.

SHENANDOAH, PA., in Schuylkill County, 105 miles northwest of Philadelphia, on the Pennsylvania, the Lehigh Valley and the Philadelphia & Reading railroads. There are also numerous bus routes to neighboring towns. It is in a rich anthracite coal field, and mining is the principal industry. The Greek Catholic church here was one of the first of that denomination to be established in the United States. The borough has a public library, a state hospital, national banks, a savings bank and building and loan associations. It was settled in 1850 and was incorporated in 1866. Population, 1920, 24,726, in 1930, 21,782, a loss of 13.5 per cent.

SHENANDOAH RIVER, a river of Northwestern Virginia, 300 miles in length, flowing northeastward into the Potomac, which it enters at Harper's Ferry. Its valley, formed by the Blue Ridge and central Appalachian Mountains and noted for its fertility and beauty, was the scene of numerous military operations during the Civil War. See **SHERIDAN, PHILIP HENRY**.

SHEPARD, HELEN GOULD (1868-), an American philanthropist, the eldest daughter of Jay Gould. Among the first of her famous benevolences was a gift of \$100,000 to the United States government at the opening of the Spanish-American War, for improvement in the equipment of the hospital and commissary service, and a donation of \$50,000 for military hospital supplies. A library building and an engineering school to New York University, the naval branch building and equipment of the Brooklyn Y. M. C. A., a fund for improvements at Rutgers College, and a large sum to the Hall of Fame were among her principal benefactions. She was made a director of the Russell Sage Foundation. Miss Gould was married to Finley J. Shepard, a railway official, in 1913.

SHEPHERD DOG, the general name of a group of dogs, of which the finest breed is the Scotch collie, employed originally by shepherds to assist in tending flocks. The small Spitz, or Pomeranian, also belongs to this family. The shepherd dog generally is large, of powerful, lithe build, and is remarkable for its intelligence and usefulness. The tail is rather long and possesses a bushy fringe, the muzzle is notably sharp, and the eyes are large and bright. See **COLLIE**.

SHERATON, sher' a ton, THOMAS (1761-1806), an English designer of furniture which bears his name, was born at Stockton-on-Tees. He went to London in 1790 and soon after published his books, *Cabinet-Maker and Upholsterers' Director*, *Cabinet Dictionary*, and *The Cabinet-Maker, Upholsterer and General Artists' Encyclopedia*, each profusely illustrated with engravings and colored plates of the designs with which his name has become identified. He was always extremely poor, and never seems to have had a shop of his own, although his books had a wide circulation and much furniture was made from his original designs. Sheraton's name will always be connected with furniture decorated with painted designs. He was also noted for his use of inlay. See **FURNITURE**.

SHEERBROOKE, shur'brook, QUE., at the junction of the Saint Francis and Magog rivers, 101 miles east of Montreal, on the Canadian National, Canadian Pacific, and Quebec Central railroads. The rivers furnish good waterpower, and the city is an important industrial center. Among the leading manufactures are woollen cloths, flour, foundry products, tools, lumber, wood pulp, paper and malt liquors. Population, 1931, 28,933.

SHERIDAN, Wyo., the county seat of Sheridan County, on the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad. Coal is mined in the vicinity, the city is a stock-shipping point, and there are two large sugar refineries. A Carnegie Library and a state school for girls, are here, and there is an airport. The town was settled in 1882, and was incorporated in the next year. Population, 1920, 9,175, in 1930, 8,536.

SHERIDAN, PHILIP HENRY (1831-1888), an American soldier, probably the greatest cavalry leader of the Civil War, born in Albany, N. Y. He was graduated at West Point Military Academy in 1853, and from 1855 to 1861 served on the frontiers of Texas and Oregon. At the outbreak of the Civil War he was a captain in the Thirteenth Infantry, but in the following year he was made colonel of the Second Michigan Cavalry. Later in the year he was placed in command of the Army of the Ohio, and in the battles of Perryville, Murfreesboro, Chickamauga and Chattanooga, he showed the greatest ability and bravery. In April, 1864, Grant appointed him chief of cavalry of the Army of the Potomac, and he made several daring cavalry raids into the Shenandoah Valley.

His ride from Winchester to Cedar Creek, a distance of twenty miles, which turned a Federal defeat into a brilliant victory, is his most famous exploit. During the final advance upon Richmond he was Grant's right-hand man. He fought the Battle of Five Forks, which necessitated Lee's evacuation of Richmond and Petersburg; and as Lee fled he constantly harassed and attacked him, until he compelled his surrender at Appomattox Court House, April 9, 1865. After the war he held various military commands. In March, 1869, he became lieutenant-general, and in February, 1884, on the retirement of Sherman, commanding general of the army.



PHILIP SHERIDAN

SHERIDAN, RICHARD BRINSLEY BUTLER (1751-1816), a British dramatist and statesman, born in Dublin. His first famous comedy, *The Rivals*, was produced in 1775, and this was followed by *The Duenna*, a comic opera; *The School for Scandal*, the greatest English comedy which had been produced since Shakespeare; *Saint Patrick's Day*, a farce, and *The Critic*, a comedy. After the destruction by fire of his Drury Lane Theater, London, the closing years of Sheridan's life were handicapped by continued financial difficulties. His charm of personality and wit made him a conspicuous figure in London literary life and society. He also won fame as an orator during his twelve-year Parliamentary career, especially for his speeches on the impeachment of Warren Hastings. Burial was in Westminster Abbey.

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SHERIFF, sher'if, the chief executive officer of a county. In England since the early part of the fourteenth century the office of sheriff has been appointive. In the United States, there are a few states in which the sheriffs are appointed, but the office is generally elective, and cannot be held for more than two successive terms. In the two countries the duties of sheriff are practically the same. He is charged with the safe-keeping of prisoners, with the proper conduct of juries, and is expected to keep the peace. His duties include the seizure of property

when a warrant of attachment has been issued, and the sale of property to satisfy a judgment. In populous counties a sheriff has several assistants, called deputies, and there are many perquisites to his office in the form of fees, often making it highly lucrative.

SHERMAN, shur'man, JOHN (1823-1900), one of the most influential statesmen of his day, and author of the famous silver and anti-trust laws which bear his name. Sherman was born in Lancaster, Ohio. He was admitted to the bar in 1844, and began practice at Mansfield, from which city he was elected to Congress in 1855. As a speaker he was an acknowledged power from his early years. In 1861 Sherman became United States Senator, and as chairman of the



JOHN SHERMAN

Ways and Means committee did much to strengthen the public credit during the Civil War and after. He was appointed Secretary of the Treasury under President Hayes in 1877, and succeeded in accumulating a sufficient gold reserve for the resumption of specie payment. He served continuously as United States Senator from 1881 until 1897. During this period he secured the enactment of the Antitrust Law (see TRUSTS) and the Sherman Silver Act. He became the Secretary of State of President McKinley's Cabinet in 1897, but at the outbreak of the war with Spain, on account of advanced age and failing powers, he resigned this post and retired to private life. William Tecumseh Sherman, his brother, was a distinguished Federal general in the Civil War.

SHERMAN, ROGER (1721-1793), an American patriot, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Newton, Mass. As a boy he was apprenticed to a shoemaker, but in 1743 he engaged in business with his brother at New Milford, Conn., and was later admitted to the bar. Before the Revolutionary War he had served in the Connecticut legislature, as a judge of the superior court of Connecticut, and as a member of the Connecticut senate. He was a member of the committees that framed the Declaration of Independence and the Articles

of Confederation. In 1784 he was elected mayor of New Haven. While holding this office Sherman was an influential member of the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia (1787). He was one of the first Representatives in the Federal Congress from Connecticut, and in 1791 was elected to the Senate, where he served until his death.

SHERMAN, TEX, the county seat of Grayson County, about sixty miles north of Dallas, on the Frisco, the Texas & Pacific, the Houston & Texas Central, the Missouri, Kansas & Texas, and the Cotton Belt railroads. There is a landing field. The city has an elevation of about 1,000 feet above the sea. It is in the fertile Red River Valley, where much cotton is raised, and is not far from the Ardmore coal fields of Oklahoma. It ships large quantities of cotton and grain and contains a large cotton gin, several cottonseed oil mills, flour and lumber mills, machine shops, brick works and numerous other factories.

Sherman maintains a modern system of public schools. Its higher educational institutions are Austin College, coeducational, and Kidd-Key College (junior), for girls. The municipality has a Carnegie Library, a Y. M. C. A., a new courthouse, and a Federal building, and owns the waterworks. Sherman was settled in 1848, and was chartered as a city in 1895. The city manager form of government is in operation. Population, 1920, 15,081; in 1930, 15,713.

SHERMAN, WILLIAM TECUMSEH (1820-1891), an American general, born at Lancaster, Ohio, and educated at West Point Military Academy. He served in the army in Florida and Mexico, and in 1853 retired to private life. On the outbreak of the Civil War he offered his services to the United States government and was appointed colonel of the Thirtieth Infantry. He was present at the Battle of Bull Run, greatly distinguished himself at Shiloh and subsequently took a prominent part in the operations under Grant around Vicksburg and Memphis. Transferred to Tennessee, he



SHERMAN

rendered Grant great service in the operations around Chattanooga, and early in 1864 he led his forces in a raid across Mississippi, devastating the country from Jackson to Meridian. In March, 1864, he succeeded Grant as commander of the military division of the Mississippi, and at the beginning of May, simultaneously with Grant's advance in the East, he began his invasion of Georgia. On September 1, after a number of battles, he took Atlanta, and on December 21 entered Savannah. Then, turning northward into the Carolinas and fighting more battles, he received the surrender of General Joseph E. Johnston at Durham's Station, April 26, 1865, a surrender which brought the war to a close. Sherman was made a major-general in 1864, lieutenant-general in 1866 and general in 1869. When Grant became President in 1869, Sherman was made commanding general of the United States army. He was retired in 1884. In 1875 he published his *Memoirs*, in two volumes.

SHERRY, sher', a Spanish wine, made in the neighborhood of Jerez, in the province of Andalusia, near Cadiz, the location of the choicest vineyards of Spain. Dry sherry is the most highly prized. It is a strong wine, esteemed for its delicate flavor. Sherry is more largely imitated and adulterated than any other wine. A light white beverage, in imitation of Spanish sherry, is made in California. See **WINE**.

SHETLAND ISLANDS, a group of islands, the most northerly possession of Great Britain in Europe, lying at about the junction of the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea, northeast of Scotland. They number about 100, of which twenty-three are inhabited, and cover an area of about 556 square miles. The decreasing population was 21,410 in 1931.

The surface is rugged, and the coasts have many indentations, lined with abrupt cliffs of gneiss, sandstone and granite. The climate is variable, but moderate both as to heat and cold. Fishing forms the chief industry, the cod, the hmg and the herring being leading articles of commerce. The raising of cattle, sheep and ponies is also an important industry, the Shetland ponies being especially famous. The chief agricultural products are oats and barley; in manufactures, hosiery and shawls take the lead. Interesting relics of the Stone Age (which see) are found on the Shetlands. These have been much studied by the world's scientists.

SHIELD, *sheeld*, a piece of armor carried on the left arm or in the left hand as a means of defense to ward off missiles and sword blows. Varied in form and size, it was the prime means of protection in battle from earliest times to the introduction of firearms.

In the early Middle Ages, foot soldiers as well as horses were protected by shields. Then the heraldic devices on the shields were the only means of identification of friend or foe, as in battle the men were completely incased in suits of armor (see **HERALDRY**). If held at arm's length, the shield was called a *buckler*; if swung over the arm with the arm across the body, it was known as a *target*. The shield of the ancient Greek infantry almost covered the entire body; that of the Romans was much lighter and smaller.



ROMAN SHIELDS

The Vikings hung their shields over the sides of ships when embarking upon an adventure. In the eleventh century it was customary to carry dead knights from the battlefield on their shields. The Spartan mother, upon the departure of her warrior sons for battle, bade them to return with or on their shields. In the thirteenth century the custom of hanging shields in churches was introduced.

Shields of savage races are most generally made of oxhide, which is hardened to resist penetration of spears and darts. In modern warfare the shield has an unimportant place as a protection to machine guns, and this use now, too, is on the decline. A metal shield protects those firing larger guns, such as six-inch field pieces.

SHITES, *she'ites*, the lesser of the two great sects of Mohammedans. They do not acknowledge the *Sunna* as a law, and believe that Ali, the fourth caliph after Mohammed, was his first lawful successor. Persia is now the only Shiite nation of importance.

SHILLABER, *shil'a ber*, BENJAMIN PEN-HALLOW (1814-1890), an American humorist, whose amusing sketches gained wide popularity, written under the pen name of MRS. PARTINGTON. He was born at Portsmouth,

N. H., became a printer and was engaged in this occupation at Dover, N. H., and at Boston until 1847, when he joined the editorial staff of the Boston *Post*, and later the *Saturday Evening Gazette*. Among his well-known books are *Life and Sayings of Mrs. Partington*, *Partingtonian Patchwork*, *Rhymes with Reason and Without* and *Ike and His Friends*.

SHILLING, *shil'ing*, an English silver coin, equivalent in value to twelve bronze pence, or one-twentieth of a pound sterling, and approximately equal to 24.3 cents, to 6.3 French francs, and to 1.11 German marks. The convenient size and value of the English shillings made them popular in the American colonies, but, like the pound unit, in the colonies they varied greatly in value. A few coins of this denomination were issued by the colonies, notably the famous pine tree shilling of Massachusetts (which see). The word "shilling" is yet heard in remote districts in the United States, referring to one-half the value of a twenty-five cent silver piece, which is "two shillings."

SHILOH, *shil'o*, in Biblical literature a city of the tribe of Ephraim. It was one of the oldest and most sacred of the Hebrew sanctuaries. After they had subjugated Canaan, the Children of Israel erected the tabernacle there and set up the Ark of the Covenant, at which the family of Eli officiated. According to Biblical account the ungodly conduct of the sons of Eli brought about the loss of the Ark, which had been carried into battle against the Philistines. From that time Shiloh steadily declined. The only remains of the ancient village are rock tombs and a pool formed by a hollow cut in rock. The place is to-day called Selun.

SHINGLES, or **HERPES**, which means something creeping, is a disease caused by sensory nerve irritation, the resulting inflammation creeping along the path of the affected nerve. It may make its appearance on any part of the body, though its seat is most likely to be on the trunk above the waist, and is characterized by pain and reddening of the skin, followed by blisters. In its early stage the symptoms may be those of neuralgia; if occurring on the lips, shingles may be mistaken for coldsores. Treatment consists in applying soothing ointments to cover affected areas, and if pain is great, in taking sedatives. The worst stage of the disease may continue for two weeks, but pain may

not be fully allayed for a month or more, and it may be somewhat longer before there is assurance of complete recovery. Fortunately, the victim seldom experiences a second attack. See NERVES

SHINGLES, thin pieces of wood used chiefly for covering the roofs of buildings. They are of the uniform length of eighteen inches, three-eighths of an inch thick at one end and tapering uniformly to about an eighth of an inch at the other end, and vary in width from three to eight inches. Shingles are packed 200 in a bunch. Roofing is measured by the square, that is, by areas of 10 feet square, or 100 square feet. Usually shingles are laid $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches to the weather. As $4 \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ equals 18, each shingle will cover 18 square inches of roof. It requires eight shingles to cover a square foot, or 800 to cover a square. But this does not allow for waste, and carpenters usually reckon 900 shingles to the square.

To find the number of shingles required to cover a roof, divide the area of the roof in square feet by 100 and multiply the quotient by 900, divide this product by 200, and the result will be the number of bunches required.

SHINNEY. See HOCKEY.

SHINTOISM, *shin'toh is'm*, the ancient religion and mythology of the Japanese, the least developed of all the great religions, having no supreme deity or moral code. In its origin it was a form of sun worship, but the essence of the religion is now ancestor worship and sacrifice to departed heroes. After the introduction of Buddhism the priests of Shintoism became magicians and fortune tellers. With the overthrow of the shogun, Shintoism again took the place of Buddhism. However, it has not been able to maintain itself as a religion, and has become rather a code of ceremonies.

SHIP. The first man to ride on the water rode astride a log. He may then have joined two logs together, to accommodate more men. Later he hollowed out the trunk of a tree to make a canoe, which was the first form of a boat. From these humble beginnings thousands of years ago, the shipbuilding industry has developed to its present gigantic proportions. There is not a body of water in the habitable parts of the earth that is not navigated by some form of water craft.

When a water craft ceases to be a *boat* and assumes the more pretentious name of *ship* may be a debatable question, but it is

not very important. Surely, the small craft with single floor, propelled by one or two pairs of oars or moved by an arrangement of sails, is a boat. But the sturdy vessels of the Norsemen, sixty or more feet in length, with a single floor, perhaps as many as sixty oars, but usually not more than twenty, with a single sail, and, with the oarsmen's shields hung over the sides as protection from their enemies, are referred to in stories of fact as well as of romance as Viking ships. Somewhere between the two examples lies the uncertain dividing line.

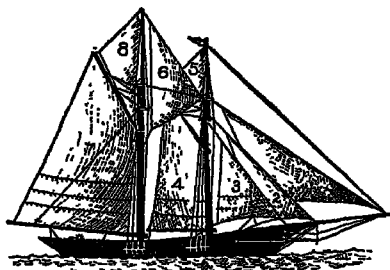
Certain it is that the galleys of Greece and Rome, much farther back in point of time, four hundred years before the Christian Era, should be called ships. Most of them had two decks, the higher one open to the free air and sun and sky, the lower the abode of unspeakable misery. Though equipped with sails, always their main dependence for propulsion were banks of oars, one bank above another to the number of two, three, four, or five, manned by slaves captured in war, chained to their stations and goaded to agonizing toil by the whip. If slaves were not obtainable, at a much later date, Protestants used captive Catholics, and Catholics captive Protestants, in place of the typical slaves of the galleys.

Three Steps in Progress. Man has achieved all of his advancement in shipbuilding during more than 6,000 years in three major developments, each progressing through refinement of detail; in each case the one being out-moded survived for a time side by side with its successor. For more than 2,000 years galley slaves propelled all the large ships of the world. This was the first stage—man power. When sails appeared, they supplemented muscle, and by degrees superseded it. Indeed, when gunpowder made cannon possible, there was not room for both slaves and artillery below deck, and the day of sails exclusively arrived.

When in turn the steam engine was adapted to marine uses, sail and steam together were used as motive power. The proud "liners" of the 1860's represented the highest type of shipbuilding art of the period, yet for years their sails supplemented the impulse of the throbbing engines whenever there was a favoring breeze. Eventually, in the 1880's, sails disappeared from ocean liners.

Sailing Vessels. Without doubt the first sail was the top of a small tree or a branch

laden with foliage. From this it was not a difficult step to the use of skins of animals, which were stretched on poles that took the place of the mast in ships of later construction. However, this may be, ships with sails were in use long before we have any recorded history of civilization. The oldest sailboat or ship of which we have any record is that of the ancient Egyptians, shown in full-page illustration. It dates from a period at least 6000 B. C. A study of this picture will show that in this primitive craft are the lines and curves that, with slight modifications, are found in the hulls of modern ships. The Egyptians were not a sea-faring people, and their development of ships did not extend to sea-going craft.



A SAILING VESSEL

1. Flying jib
2. Jib
3. Fore staysail
4. Foresail
5. Fore gaff topsail
6. Main topmast staysail
7. Mainsail
8. Main gaff topsail

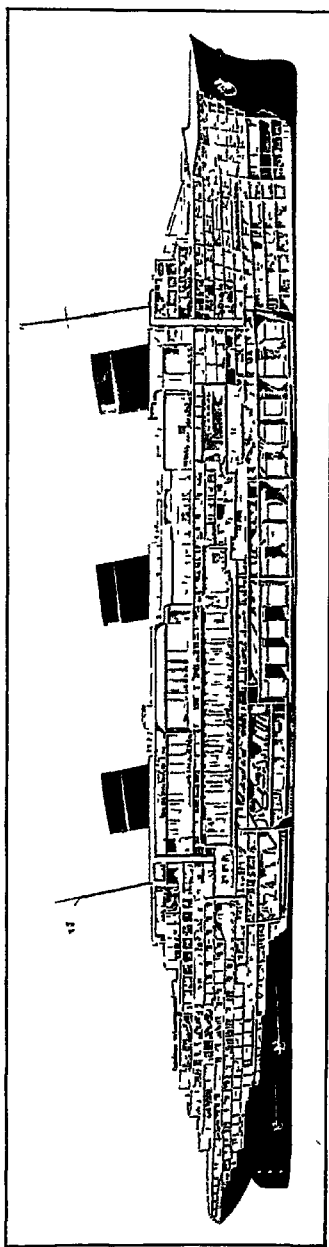
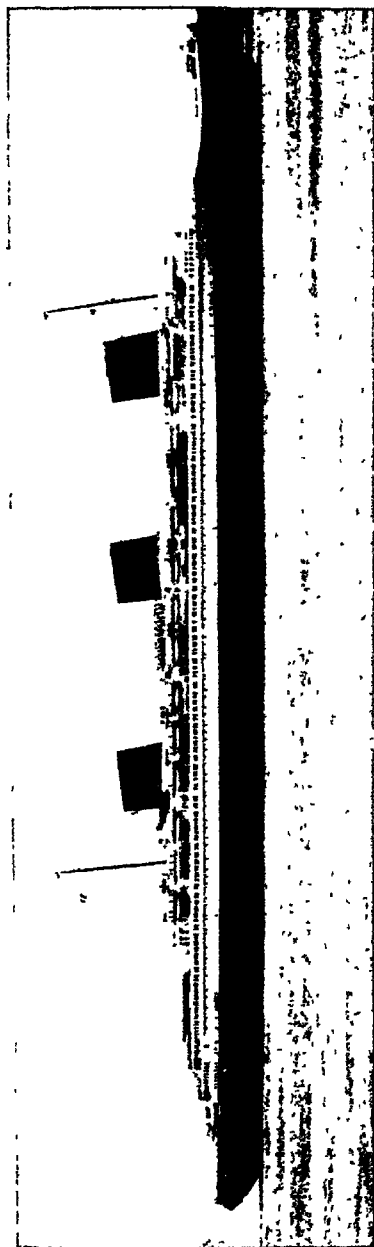
The Phoenicians, the greatest commercial people of antiquity, made considerable progress in the art of shipbuilding, the Romans also had a well-developed art. But with the tide of barbarism which swept over Europe at the downfall of the last great ancient empire, the science of shipbuilding was almost lost, and the Western peoples, to whom the world's progress was henceforth entrusted, were compelled to begin anew and build up, from their own resources, new models. For more than a thousand years after the beginning of the Christian Era navigation was practically confined to the Mediterranean Sea. The first people to brave the dangers of the open ocean at that time were the Norsemen, already referred to in this article, who reached America in their Viking ships, nearly five hundred years before Columbus. The chief events which gave impetus to the de-

velopment of shipbuilding were the invention of the compass, the discovery of America and the finding of a passage to India. Spain, the great maritime nation of the early modern era, followed by France and Holland, and later still by England, made the first important advances. The last of these nations has the credit for building the first three-decker (1637), known as the *Sovereign of the Seas*. This was the most famous warship of its day. It was 168 feet long, forty-eight feet in the beam, mounted 100 guns, and cost \$1,500,000.

Between the fifteenth century and the advent of the steamship many types of sailing vessels were developed, but they can all be brought under two general classes—the *square rigged* and the *fore-and-aft rigged*. The *Sovereign of the Seas* affords a good illustration of the first (see page 3284), and any schooner is a good example of the second class. The square-rigged ship was the first style of merchant ship to sail on long voyages, and for more than a century it was the common carrier between maritime nations.

In The United States The colonists in New England began to build ships and engage in foreign trade soon after they had founded their settlements, and before the outbreak of the Revolutionary War they had a good number of ships to their credit. Many of these, however, they lost during that struggle. After the independence of the United States was achieved it rapidly forged to the front and soon took the lead in the art of shipbuilding. In 1832, Scott Russell demonstrated the theoretical principles upon which the speed of ships is based, and these were immediately applied with success by both American and foreign builders. The "Baltimore clipper" schooners were the first results of the application of true principles of construction, but the famous Baltimore ships were not in some respects true "clippers." However, they were the speediest craft ever devised up to that time. They had sharp bows and deep stern, were very long and lay low in the water, had long, slender masts and large, skilfully cut sails. The construction of vessels on these principles gave also safer ships than had been known before, and these played a large part in the development of the oriental trade of both England and America.

For many years the schooner was in common use for coastwise traffic and on the Great Lakes. A schooner is a fore-and-aft rigged



LARGEST AND FLEETEST GREYHOUND OF THE SEAS

The "Normandie" of the French Line is nearly a fifth of a mile in length. The transverse section shows the interior arrangement through the center, from bow to stern. The open space near the middle of the ship is the great dining hall.

vessel usually having two masts and a bowsprit, though the number of masts may be increased with the size of the vessel. A good schooner is a fast sailer, and can be managed by a small crew. The largest ship of this type ever constructed was a steel seven-mast schooner, 305 feet long, 50 feet beam, having a displacement of 10,000 tons and carrying 40,617 square feet of canvas.

Sail and Steam. Robert Fulton's *Clermont*, which in 1807 introduced steam power into marine engineering, had paddle wheels on its sides, well in front of the center of the vessel. Whether Fulton or John Fitch deserves credit for this epochal invention cannot be decided in few words here; partisans of each still debate the question. Twelve years after the *Clermont's* exploit, the *Savannah*, steam-powered and with paddle wheels, but with supplementary equipment of sails, was the first so-called steamship to cross the Atlantic Ocean, from Savannah to Liverpool, time, twenty-five days. Incredulous Englishmen heard that a ship hoped to make the ocean-crossing under steam power. They debated the matter solemnly, and determined that such a feat was impossible, because to put aboard the ship a quantity of coal sufficient to fuel it would sink the vessel. A few days after this conclusion was reached, the *Savannah* came into port, to the unbounded surprise of the British public. The enterprise was robbed of much of its glory when it became known that the vessel used steam power only 80 hours on the voyage and exhausted the coal supply.

Within the next two decades the number of vessels equipped with both sail and steam increased very rapidly, and began to dominate the seas. But the sailing ship did not fully capitulate to steam until long after the screw propeller was perfected from the crude device introduced by John Fitch, and not before the "wooden walls" were succeeded by hulls of iron. The "wooden walls" were doomed when the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, both covered with protective iron, fought a four-hour battle to a draw on March 9, 1862, in Hampton Roads. Iron hulls were then to have their brief day, and sails were soon to be on their way out, hulls of iron were destined to be supplanted by steel. To meet an emergency during the World War, however, wooden ships were hurriedly built to repair losses inflicted by German submarines. This return to wood was a temporary expedient

only. It served a purpose fairly well, but proved to be a very expensive incident of the war.

Modern Steamships. In the early 1880's, when sail and steam were twin sources of power, ocean passenger vessels ranged in tonnage from 10,000 to 20,000. Not many years before the World War a steamship of 25,000 to 35,000 tons was considered large. Germany had just completed the world's largest ships when that war began, and had named them the *Bismarck* and the *Vaterland*. Great Britain confiscated the former and renamed it the *Majestic*; the United States took possession of the latter in New York harbor, where it had sought shelter, and gave it the name *Leviathan*. The *Majestic* was 915 feet long, its tonnage was 56,621. The *Leviathan* was 907 feet long, with a tonnage of 59,957. According to the system by which tonnage is measured, the *Majestic* was slightly larger than the *Leviathan*.

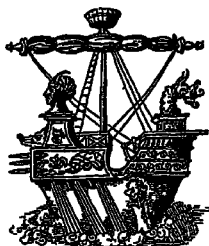
While the *Leviathan* lay interned in New York harbor, its machinery was damaged by the Germans, but after America's declaration of war the damage was repaired, and rearrangement of the interior prepared it for use as a transport. This vessel carried thousands of soldiers to Europe during the war, and after peace came carried home many more thousands. The *Leviathan* was once more refitted for passenger service, and was changed from a coal-burner to an oil-burner, all at a cost of about \$8,000,000, it was the first great oil-burning liner, and it remained in the Atlantic service about twelve years after 1923, when it was retired as no longer serviceable. The *Majestic* and the *Leviathan* were the world's largest steamships until 1930.

Speed and luxury are the demands of modern travelers at sea. Italy made bids for favor by building the *Rea* (51,062 tons, 880 feet long) and a sister ship, the *Conte di Savoia* (48,500 tons, 850 feet long) believed then to represent the utmost in lavishness of equipment. Germany built the sisterships *Bremen* (61,656 tons) and *Europa* (49,726 tons), to capture the Atlantic speed record, and they did so. The *Bremen* made its first crossing in 4 days 17 hours 42 minutes, and on the homeward trip reduced its time to 4 days 14 hours 30 minutes, thus taking the crown from the fleet *Mauretania* of Great Britain, which from 1924 had held a record which the Germans broke by 8 hours 27 minutes. (The *Mauretania*, yet a notable steam-

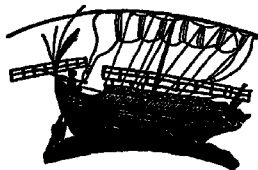
SHIPS IN ALL AGES



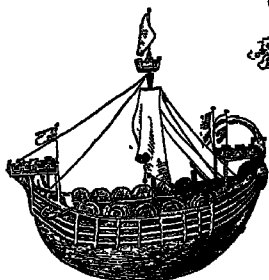
Egyptian,
about 6000 B.C.



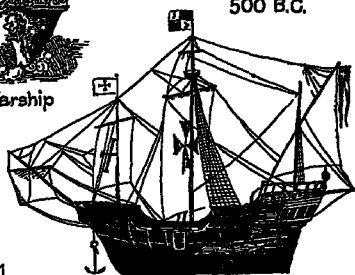
Roman Warship



Greek Merchantman,
500 B.C.



13th Century English Ship



Columbus' Flag Ship,
the "Santa Maria"



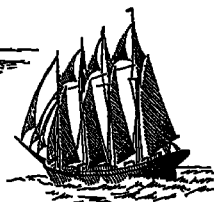
The "Sovereign of the Seas"
Built 1638



A Galleon
of the Time of Elizabeth



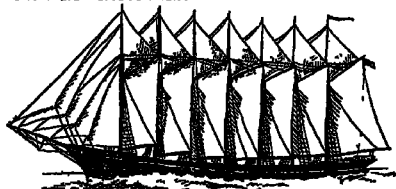
The "Newcastle,"
an East Indiaman



American Four-masted
Schooner

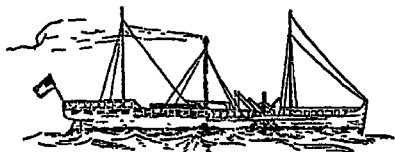


Baltimore Clipper

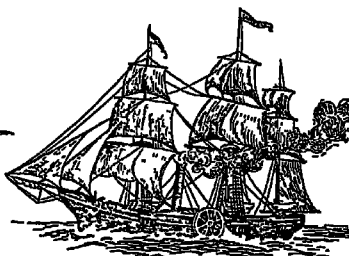


The First Seven-masted Steel Schooner

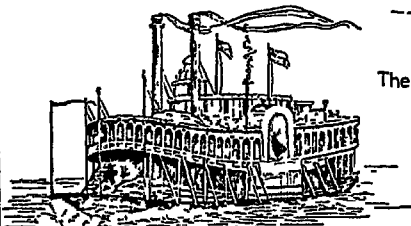
SHIPS IN ALL AGES



Fulton's Clermont
Speed, Five Miles per Hour



The Savannah
The First Steam Vessel to Cross the
Atlantic, 1819



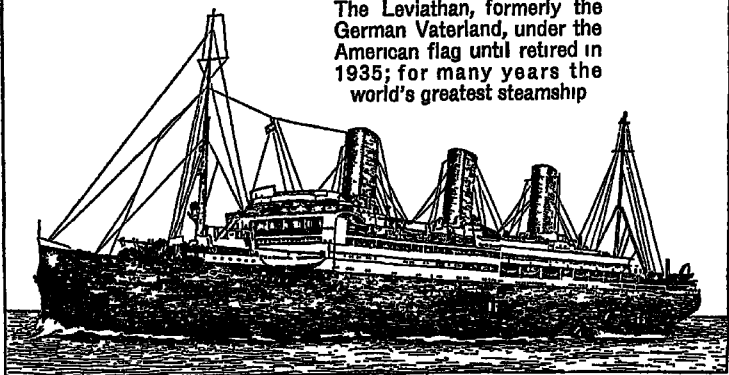
Mississippi River Steamer



Battleship, 30,000 tons



Ore Boat on Great Lakes, 1919. Capacity, 14,000 tons



The Leviathan, formerly the
German Vaterland, under the
American flag until retired in
1935; for many years the
world's greatest steamship

ship, but outclassed, was ordered broken up in 1935.) The *Bremen* and the *Europa* are 898 feet and 890 feet in length, respectively, with tonnage about 46,000 each.

France challenged the supremacy of its maritime neighbors by the construction of the *Île de France* (43,153 tons, 763 feet in length) in 1931, but had a more ambitious plan to attain eminence. In 1935 that country completed the *Normandie*, the largest vessel ever constructed, and on its maiden voyage reached New York early in June of that year. The *Normandie* took from the Germans the world's record for speed, making its first westward crossing in 4 days 3 hours 5 minutes. The *Normandie* is 1,029 feet long—nearly a fifth of a mile, it is 131 feet longer than the *Bremen*, and its gross tonnage is 79,280. Its four propellers drive engines of 160,000 horse power. (About a hundred years ago [1838], the *Great Western* was the largest steamship afloat, it was 236 feet in length, and its engines developed 450 horse power.)

The challenge of continental countries could not go unheeded in Great Britain. In 1931 the keel of the *Queen Mary* was laid, and the superstructure rose from plans the most advanced that modern shipbuilding science could devise. When the ship was planned, its length of 1,018 feet would have made it the largest ship afloat, but the *Normandie* is 11 feet longer. The gross tonnage of the *Queen Mary* was announced as 73,000, but later changes altered the original specifications in several respects, to approach more nearly an equality with the French ship. The first trip of this new English leviathan of the seas was made in June, 1936. A sister ship was projected at once.

Nautical Terms. *Starboard and Port.*

When a person stands on the deck of a vessel, facing forward toward the bow, the side of the ship to his right is *starboard*, to the left is the *port* side. Years ago the terms *starboard* and *larboard* were current, but the latter was abandoned in favor of *port*, because the similarity of the names caused confusion.

Displacement. This is a term which stated in tons denotes the amount of water displaced by a ship free-floating in still water. The weight of the water displaced by the vessel is equal to the weight of the vessel, with everything on board. The displacement in cubic feet when floating in fresh water divided by 36 gives the total weight of the vessel and

cargo in tons of 2,240 pounds; if in salt water, the divisor is 35. The method of determining the displacement in cubic feet cannot be made clear in brief space.

Tonnage. The meaning of the word varies somewhat among the maritime nations. Generally speaking, tonnage is the carrying capacity of a ship; if a vessel has 50,000 tons capacity, that figure represents its tonnage. Gross tonnage is reckoned on the basis of 100 cubic feet to the ton of 2,240 pounds, and is determined by dividing the cubic contents of the ship's interior and its deck house by 100. This is known as register ton measurement. Net tonnage is the volume of space actually available for passengers and cargo, and is the measurement depended upon for revenue. Freight boats usually reckon 40 cubic feet of merchandise as a ton, if the weight in that space does not exceed 2,000 pounds, if the contrary is true, payment is by actual weight.

Notable Marine Disasters. The navigation of the seas from the earliest times has resulted in frequent disasters, involving serious losses of life. Many of these were due to acts of God, to storms or other circumstances beyond the control of men. A few were due to attacks by enemies, and others were caused by carelessness or negligence. Of the thousands of disasters, the record of the most noteworthy in loss of life are listed below:

NAME OF SHIP	PLACE	DATE	CAUSE	DEAD
Association	Solily Islands	Oct. 22, 1707	Wreck	860
Prince George	Gibraltar	Apr. 13, 1758	Fire	450
Royal George	Synthead	Aug. 29, 1782	Wreck	600
Queen Charlotte	Leghorn	Mar. 17, 1800	Fire	673
St. George	Jutland Coast	Dec. 24, 1811	Wreck	630
Defence	Jutland Coast	Dec. 24, 1811	Wreck	600
Royal Adelaide	Margate	Mar. 30, 1850	Wreck	400
Birkenhead	African Coast	Feb. 26, 1852	Wreck	454
City of Glasgow	At Sea	Mar. 1854	Unknown	480
Central America	At Sea	Sept. 12, 1857	Wreck	400
Austria	Mid-Atlantic	Sept. 12, 1857	Wreck	471
Lady Elgin	Lake Michigan	Sept. 8, 1860	Collision	287
Captain	Off Finisterre	Sept. 7, 1870	Wreck	473
Atlantic	Off Nova Scotia	Apr. 1, 1873	Wreck	547
Ospatriek	Mid-Atlantic	Dec. 6, 1874	Fire	400
Princess Alice	Thames River	Sept. 3, 1878	Collision	770
Etiopiar	Japan Coast	Sept. 19, 1880	Wreck	460
Utopia	Gibraltar	Mar. 17, 1881	Wreck	574
Narcissa	Atlantic	Feb. 7, 1883	Unknown	400
Elbe	North Sea	Jan. 30, 1885	Collision	385
Rena Regenta	Gibraltar	Mar. 11, 1895	Wreck	400
Burgeyne	Off Eble Island	July 4, 1898	Collision	871
Maine	Havana Harbor	Feb. 15, 1898	Explosion	280
General Slocum	New York	June 15, 1904	Fire	648
Norge	Scotch Coast	June 28, 1904	Wreck	648
Titanic	Atlantic	Apr. 14, 1912	Iceberg	1517
Empress of Ireland	St. Lawrence River	May 28, 1914	Collision	1027
Bulwark	Thames River	Nov. 26, 1914	Explosion	800
Lustana	Irish Coast	May 7, 1915	Torpedo	1198
Eastland	Chicago River	July 24, 1915	Capsize	813
Provence II	Mediterranean	Feb. 26, 1916	Torpedoed	910
Vanguard	British Port	July 6, 1917	Explosion	800
Vesuvius	Virginia Coast	Feb. 12, 1923	Pondered	111
St. Philbert	French Coast	June 14, 1931	Capsize	473
Morro Castle	New Jersey Coast	Sept. 8, 1934	Fire	134

SHODDY, a fiber made of shredded woolen, worsted or mixed rags. The rags are thoroughly cleansed, then shredded and carded, by processes similar to those used in the manufacture of wool (See WOOLEN MANUFACTURE). When it leaves the cards the fiber is in the form of long, fluffy rolls. These are packed into bales under hydraulic pressure, and in this form they are shipped to manufacturers.

This used material is not so strong as new fiber, and in the reweaving a certain amount of new material is used with it; sometimes this is wool, sometimes cotton. In the form of wool powder shoddy is also used to add weight and substance to certain inferior woolen cloths. The shoddy industry is important in the United States, England and Canada. Where no attempt is made to deceive the buying public, the production of shoddy is a service to those of limited means, for it can be made into attractive and serviceable garments.

SHOES. See BOOTS AND SHOES.

SHOGUN, *sho'gun*, meaning *great general*, was the name given to the military commander of each of the four districts into which the Japanese Empire in early times was divided. These commanders eventually became absolute rulers of their districts and superseded the mikado in power. After having been held successively by four military clans for almost 700 years, the office of shogun was abolished by the revolution of 1868 and the central power was reestablished.

SHOOTING STAR. See METEOR.

SHORT BALLOT. In large cities at a general election the ballot usually contains so many names that many voters become confused in marking them, and not infrequently they vote for a candidate for whom they did not intend to vote. Moreover, the large number of officials to be elected makes it practically impossible for the voter to become acquainted with the qualifications of all the candidates, and irresponsible men are frequently elected to office.

The *short ballot* is designed to do away with these evils by placing on the ballot only the names of those officials who are to determine public policy, leaving to appointment all those whose duties are merely administrative. It is further urged that very few offices be filled at one election. Questions of public policy are also presented to the voter for his approval. Public interest in this pro-

posed reform is shown by the rapid extension of the commission form of government among cities, for this plan necessarily includes the underlying principles of the short ballot. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.



SHORTHAND, the method of writing by which the process is so abbreviated as to keep pace with speech. It is also known, according to the principle underlying the particular system, as stenography (compressed writing) and phonography (sound writing). It was practiced by the ancient Greeks and Romans, not

only on account of its brevity, but for purposes of secrecy; but all knowledge of the art was lost from the tenth century until the end of the sixteenth, when modern shorthand had its birth in the publication by Dr. Timothy Bright of his *Characterie* and by Peter Bales of his *Arte of Brachygraphie*. In these early systems arbitrary signs were used in most cases to denote each word. The earliest system of shorthand of any practical importance was that of John Willis, whose *Arte of Stenographie* (1602) became very popular. It was based on the common alphabet, with the addition of arbitrary signs; and this, indeed, was the character of the numerous systems which obtained until the time of Pitman. Willis had many imitators, some of whom made slight improvements in his system, but William Mason, whose system was published in 1872, was the only one who made any real advance.

In 1751 Thomas Gurney published his *Brachygraphy*, founded on Mason's system, and the use of Gurney's system has been perpetuated by his descendants, who have been the official shorthand writers of the Houses of Parliament since the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1767 appeared the *Universal English Shorthand* of John Byrom, an *a, b, c* system, characterized by "simple strokes and no arbitrary characters;" and in 1786 the *Stenography* of Samuel Taylor was published. This, which is the best of all the *a, b, c* systems, contributed largely to make stenography popular, and it was the system which was almost universally used until Isaac Pitman gave his *Phonography* to the world in 1837. Taylor's system possessed more easy

and natural outlines and was therefore capable of being written with a greater degree of speed than any previous system, and it contained no arbitrary characters. Harding, who re-edited the system in 1823, introduced a few.

Pitman had a number of predecessors, whose systems, like his own, were strictly phonetic. These systems, however, never obtained any footing, while Pitman's almost immediately became popular; the Benn Pitman system, a variation of the original Pitmanic, is now used by more reporters and shorthand writers than any other. Like all other phonetic systems, Pitman's rejects the ordinary orthography and writes words according to the sounds; thus *though* becomes *tho*, *plough* becomes *plow*, and *enough* becomes *enuf*. Discarding the common alphabet, which formed the basis of the stenographic systems, it has adopted an alphabet of its own, consisting of a series of straight lines, curves and dots, each representing a distinct sound. This alphabet is the basis of a highly ingenious and complex system, which aims at securing the greatest degree of brevity consistent with legibility. In rapid writing in Pitman's system the vowels are generally omitted.

In recent years several new systems have been introduced and have met with more or less success. Many of these are modifications of the original Pitmanic system, such as Graham's (1858) and Munson's (1867). There are also many constructed upon a new and so-called "rational" basis. Of these now widely used in the United States, the best-known are the Cross, or Eclectic, the Pernin, the Gregg and the McKee. All differ from each other as greatly as from the Pitmanic systems. The Cross, or Eclectic, is formed largely upon the basis of position of strokes, though several new strokes are also used. The Pernin is evolved from geometrical figures and does not use the Pitmanic shading. The Gregg system, which has been gaining adherents rapidly in the West, has five striking features—(1) no shading; (2) slope same as in long-hand; (3) no position writing; (4) vowels and consonants conjoined; (5) curves are used and few angles. The McKee, commonly known as the New Standard system, retains the Pitmanic shading, and its vowels are composed of circles and ellipses in different sizes. It does not use positions.

Shorthand has now been developed to the point where it easily keeps pace with speech,

a fair average for an accomplished reporter being from 150 to 175 words a minute. Speed records have been made and authenticated of from 200 to 275 words a minute, for a period of ten or fifteen minutes in succession, and higher rates have been reached for shorter periods.

SHOSHONEAN INDIANS, the great group of tribes who lived west of Kansas, north and west as far as Oregon and south and west to California. Those east of the Rocky Mountains were hunting tribes, of fierce and warlike disposition, while those living west of the mountains lived on small animals, fish, roots and seeds. The savagery of the Shoshoni, also called *Diggers*, or *Snake*, Indians, was thoroughly disgusting, but some of the southern members of the group, the Hopi in particular, living in Northwestern Arizona, were Pueblo Indians and were successful agriculturists and skilled makers of pottery and basketry. Bannock, Comanche, Ute and Shoshoni are among the principal tribes. The tribes belonging to this great family are bound together by kindred languages, more than by any physical resemblances or common customs of life.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
Comanche Indians, American
Hopi Ute

SHOSHONE FALLS, *sho shó'ne*, a waterfall of the Snake River, in Southern Idaho, exceeded in grandeur and majesty, in the United States, only by Niagara Falls and the falls of the Yosemite Valley. The river flows for some distance through a canyon 800 feet deep, where it has a number of small falls and cataracts. These terminate in the main fall, which plunges 190 feet into a lake at the bottom of a gorge over 1,000 feet deep.

SHOSHONE RIVER. See SNAKE RIVER.

SHOT, the name applied to small projectiles used in sporting weapons called *shot-guns*. It is made by pouring melted lead through holes in a collar placed at some distance above water. The drops of lead assume a globular form in their descent and harden when they strike the water. There are different sizes of shot, each adapted to the purpose for which it is intended. A small shot is used in hunting birds, but a large size is required for small animals. The sizes are designated by number.

Formerly the term *shot* was applied to all solid projectiles fired from cannon, but it is

not considered in that sense since the invention of the modern shell. See **SHELL**.

SHOT, PUTTING THE, an athletic test of strength and skill. The shot putter throws a weight the greatest distance possible without stepping outside of a seven-foot circle. The shot is spherical in shape. For the use of boys it weighs twelve pounds; for adults, sixteen pounds. In the first position the putter stands with his right heel just within the circle and his left foot forward. The put is held loosely in his right hand, which rests, palm upward, on his right shoulder, and the right elbow is held close to the body. The first movement is a leap forward by a quick turn to the right, which brings the weight of the body upon the right foot. The putter then swings his body forward, using his left foot as a pivot, throwing his right foot forward as far as he may, at the same time thrusting out his right arm and releasing the shot at an angle of forty-five degrees. Shot putting is not arm throwing, but, rather, delivering a weight by swinging the entire force of the body into the movement.

SHOTGUN, a smooth-bore gun which fires a charge of small shot, and which is used for shooting small game. Formerly shotguns were made with one, two or even three barrels, and the double-barrel gun is still in favor with many sportsmen. The typical modern shotgun has but one barrel, and a magazine in which the shells are stored. The bore of a shotgun is named from the weight of the bullet, required to fit it. If it takes a bullet weighing one-twelfth of a pound, it is a 12-bore. Thus and 10-bore are the sizes most commonly used. All modern shotguns are breechloaders, the cartridges or shells being inserted in the breech. The cartridge—a charge of explosive, a load of shot and a percussion cap, to explode the charge—is usually packed in a cylindrical paper casing. From six to twelve cartridges can be placed in a magazine. The effective range of a 12-bore shotgun is from sixty to seventy-five yards; for rabbits and partridges, forty to fifty yards.

The first breech-loading gun was invented in 1836, and since that time by numerous improvements shotguns have been brought to as high degree of perfection as any other small arm. Hammerless guns, which discharge the shell by a mechanism hidden in the breech, are the most popular. The prices of shotguns vary from \$10 for the cheapest to \$200.

SHOVELBOARD. See **SHUFFLEBOARD**.

SHOVELER, *shuv'el er*, or **SPOONBILL**, a river duck, so named because the end of its bill is widened, like a shovel or spoon, its upper mandible overlapping the lower. It



SHOVELER

feeds in the mud of shallow waters, using its bill to stir up the mud and capture small animals. The male bird is rather gay in color, but the female is much more modest in appearance. One species is found in the United States during summer, although the shoveler is more prevalent in South America, South Africa and the Australian region.

SHRAPNEL, a projectile used extensively by field artillery and to some extent in navies. It consists of an elongated pointed steel shell filled with bullets and an explosive charge set to a time piece. The base of the shell is enclosed in a metal case which contains the explosive that fires the shell from the gun. There are a number of sizes of shrapnel, each determined by the caliber of the gun in which it is to be used. The 3-inch gun is in general use in light field artillery, and this carries a shell weighing about eighteen pounds. The length of the shell is $3\frac{1}{2}$ times its diameter.



SHRAPNEL

- a Smokeless powder (Nitrocellulose)
- b Black powder
- c Shot

and it carries from 238 to 350 lead balls. The exploding charge may be placed in the front or the rear. A shell for 6-inch gun weighs 108 pounds and is 21 inches long; it contains $22\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of lead balls. These shells are effective at 11,000 yards, or about six miles. Those of the 3-inch gun are effective from three to four miles.

Shrapnel is designed for use in the field and to dislodge the enemy from covered places, and is very destructive. A single shell when it bursts throws its balls over an area of several hundred square feet. A battery of a few guns will soon render a large field untenable. In the navy shrapnel is used against torpedo boats and other small craft. It was named for its inventor, Colonel Henry Shrapnel of the British army.

SHREVEPORT, *shreev'port*, La., the second city in size in the state and the parish seat of Caddo Parish, 325 miles northwest of New Orleans and fifteen miles from the Texas state line. The city is on the Red River and on the Texas & Pacific, the Illinois Central, the Southern Pacific, the Kansas City Southern, the Louisiana & Arkansas, the Saint Louis & Southwestern (Cotton Belt) and the Louisiana, Arkansas & Texas railroads. The city has two airports. It is in the center of the northwestern part of the state. Cotton is the principal product of the rich agricultural region, and the city contains cotton compresses, cottonseed oil mills, machine shops, fertilizer works, ice factories, lumber and stockyards and manufactories of safes and vaults, silos and bottles. It also exports considerable live stock, hides and wool. Some of the prominent features are three hospitals, a Federal building, a courthouse, a fine city hall, Shreve Memorial Library, and a municipal auditorium. The city also has Centenary College, Dodd College, and St. Vincent's Academy. Shreveport was settled in 1833 and was incorporated in 1839. During the Civil War it was the capital of the state, after the capture of Baton Rouge. The commission form of government is in operation. Population, 1920, 43,874; in 1930, 76,655, a gain of 75 per cent.

SHREW, a genus of small insect-eating mammals, found in almost every region of the northern hemisphere. The *common shrew* may readily be distinguished by its prolonged muzzle, by its teeth, colored brown at the tips, and by its reddish-brown fur. It feeds chiefly by night upon insects and their larvae, and inhabits dry places making a nest of leaves and grasses. Shrews are voracious in their habits and frequently kill and devour one another. They secrete a fluid of disagreeable odor, which prevents larger animals from eating their flesh. In former days the bite of the shrew was accounted venomous, while its body, variously treated, was regarded

as a cure for many complaints. One American species, the *mole shrew*, resembling a mole in some of its habits, feeds upon flesh of all kinds. Another American species is the *shrew mouse*, smaller and lighter in color, which dwells around marshes and wet regions.



COMMON SHREW

The *water shrew*, the largest American shrew, attains a total length of about five inches. The snout is not so pointed as that of the common shrew. Its color is black on the upper parts and white underneath. A prominent swimming fringe of stiff, white hairs is found on the tail and the toes, which forms a distinctive feature of the species. Its food resembles that of the common shrew. It makes its burrows in the overhanging banks of rivers and lakes and dives and swims with great facility.

SHREW MOLE, a genus of mammals belonging to the family of shrew mice, but also by some zoologists placed in the mole family. It is found in North America, usually near rivers and streams, and burrows after the fashion of the common mole, which it resembles in its fine and closely-set fur. The average length of the shrew mole is about seven inches.

SHRIKE, a name applied rather loosely to various birds with strong, hooked bills. In the United States but two species are



SHRIKE

found—the *northern shrike*, or *butcher bird*, and the *loggerhead shrike*. These birds strongly resemble each other in appearance

and differ but little in size. Their general color is gray on the upper and white on the under parts, the quills of the tail are black, and a black band crosses the forehead and surrounds the eyes. Shrikes are about nine or ten inches in length. They prey on large insects and small mammals, impaling them upon thorns, fence barbs, or forked twigs.

SHRIMP, a genus of small crustaceans, closely allied to the crawfish. The *common shrimp*, found in the North Atlantic on both



SHRIMP

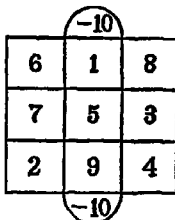
the European and American coasts, and in the Pacific, is about two inches long, greenish-gray in color, with brown dots; on the Pacific coast it is pink. Shrimps are caught in nets and are marketed in canned form.

SHROVE TUESDAY, in Roman Catholic ritual, the day before the first day of Lent, or Ash Wednesday, so called because confession is specially made and "shrift" is received. It was at first a day of considerable festivity, and from the common practice in England of eating pancakes then, the day came to be called *Pancake Tuesday*. It is the *Carnival of the Italians*. Since 1857 Shrove Tuesday has been celebrated in New Orleans by a street pageant, known as the *Mardi Gras* representing, in elaborate tableaux, noted scenes in history and literature, by a masquerade ball and by other gay entertainments.

SHUFFLEBOARD or **SHOVELBOARD**, a game played by two or four persons, on a sand-sprinkled board, thirty feet long, with raised edges. Across the board, five inches from each end, a line is drawn. Eight circular pieces of iron, about two and a half inches in diameter and weighing a pound, are used by the players, who slide them the length of the board. Each side has four pieces, and the players slide them in rotation. If a piece is left projecting over the edge of the board, it scores three points. If it rests between the finishing line and the edge or on the line it scores two points. If no piece is inside the line, then the one nearest to it scores one. The game is twenty-one points.

Another form of shuffleboard is popular on ocean steamers. A place on the deck is marked out, as in the accompanying diagram. The players stand nine or ten paces away, and each in turn pushes one of his pieces along the deck with a crutch-shaped cue, in an endeavor to leave the pieces on the numbered squares.

If a piece rests on one of the semi-circular places, ten is taken off the player's score; on the squares the count is as indicated by the numbers. The game is exactly 50 points. If more than fifty are made, the additional ones are deducted from the score.



SHUFFLEBOARD



A Siamese prince

SIAM, the "Kingdom of the Free" and the "Land of the White Elephant," is the only independent country in Indo-China Peninsula. A projection extends into the Malay Peninsula, reaching south to the 6th degree of north latitude, and is known as Lower Siam. Siam proper is bounded on the north and east by the colony of French Indo-China, on the south by the Gulf of Siam and on the west by Burma. Lower Siam separates the Indian Ocean on the west from the China Sea on the east. The northern boundary is somewhat indefinite, but the area of the country is about 198,188 square miles, or about the area of California and Indiana combined. About 32,810 square miles are in the Malay Peninsula.

The People. In 1934 there were over 12,700,000 people in the country. Of these, 10,494,000 were Siamese, who are indolent, carefree, submissive and hospitable. They are of Mongolian stock, of medium height, and have an olive complexion, somewhat fairer than that of the Malay. Many Laotians dwell in the northern part of the kingdom, and Shan, Karen and Kamoo tribes are found in the uplands. The country contains a large number of Chinese, who control all the im-

portant business enterprises. It is estimated that one-third of the population of Bangkok is Chinese.

Buddhism is the principal religion, and the white elephant, which is native in the peninsula, is an object of veneration and even worship, because it is believed that the soul of some great king or of Buddha himself is embodied in the animal. Buddhism is found in Siam in its purest form, and the king is recognized as the protector of the faith. Class distinctions, such as are found in India, do not exist.

All public schools are under control of the Minister of Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical Affairs. There is a commissioner of education in each province. Besides government schools there are local and private schools, and in addition to the activities of the government in behalf of education, the institutions established by American, English and French missionaries provide educational facilities for a large number of children. A number of secondary schools have been established, also a university, with departments of medicine, engineering, arts and sciences, political sciences, and nursing and midwifery. Siamese is the official language of the kingdom.

Surface and Drainage. In general, Siam proper is a low plain, sloping gently toward the south and consisting of the valleys of the Menam River and its tributaries, together with the Mekong, which forms the western boundary, and the valleys of its tributaries. The watersheds between these are low and in some places scarcely noticeable. In the main, the land along the streams and near the coast is low and swampy. On the southeastern border is Tonle Sap Lake, a large part of which is in Cambodia. On the western boundary is a rocky ridge, constituting a low mountain chain, the extension of which forms the backbone of the Malay Peninsula. The Mekong, forming a part of the eastern boundary; the Menam with its tributary, the Meping, and the Nam Mun are the principal rivers.

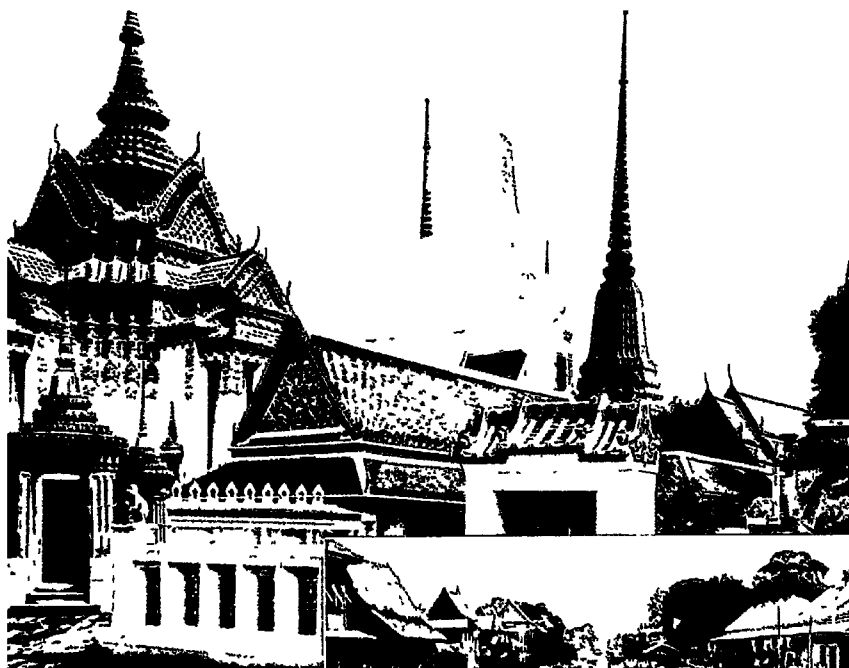
Climate. The climate is tropical, but owing to the position of the country in reference to the sea, it is not as hot as one might expect from the latitude. The humidity is great, and in general the climate is trying, if not unhealthful, to Europeans. There are two seasons, the wet and the dry, the former lasting from May to October, and the latter occupying the remainder of the year. The rain-

fall is heavy, in some sections amounting to 240 inches a year, but during the dry season, in the northern part of the country, no rain falls for several months. Here the atmosphere is drier, and the nights are cool.

Production and Industry. The northern part of the country is covered with dense forests, containing teak and other tropical woods, and large quantities of teak are exported, but the great wealth of the country lies in its agricultural regions, which engages 83 per cent of the population. By means of the numerous rivers and canals, these can be amply watered and even flooded when necessary. The chief crop is rice, and Siam is one of the largest producers of this grain in the world. Cotton, tobacco, sugar cane, coffee and pepper are raised, and rubber is becoming important. The mineral resources are not well developed, yet mining is carried on. The mining operations include tin, gold and tungsten. Coal, iron, zinc, manganese and antimony occur in large quantities.

Transportation and Commerce. The rivers constitute the chief avenues of commerce. There are over 1,960 miles of railway in operation. To the telegraph, telephone, and radio as means of communication, aircraft has been added. The chief export is rice, and the annual shipments vary in value from \$30,000,000 to \$40,000,000. Other important articles of export are teak and precious stones. Timber cutting is under the care of experts, who have supervision of the forests.

Government. The government is a limited monarchy. The king is assisted by a ministry, consisting of members appointed by himself, who have charge of the various departments of government. In addition to these there is a legislative council which includes the ministry, ex-ministers and others who are nominated by the king. Within recent years the government has made marked advance along lines similar to those followed by the best European nations. This is largely due to the advice of foreigners, especially Englishmen, whom the king has called to his assistance. For the purpose of local government the country is divided into provinces, over each of which is a governor. Much of the territory subject to the king is nominally under the control of France or Great Britain, and other portions are ruled by the chiefs of native tribes, though these are subject to the central government at Bangkok. The Malay provinces are ruled by rajahs, who



1, 2 Galloway, 3, Keystone

IN PICTURESQUE SIAM
 Typical architecture, in classical
 temple of Wat Po (Sacred Fig
 Tree); a canal in Bangkok; a rural
 river village





Ewing Galloway

LIFE IS HARD IN SIBERIA

Hut of new settlers just arrived from Soviet Russia. Women and children of a village family. This village is like hundreds of others in this inhospitable land.



are subject to a local agent, who represents the king. Bangkok is the capital and the only city of importance. The present liberal constitution was adopted in June, 1932, ending absolutism in Siam.



Village in winter costume

SIBERIA, *sī bē' rī a*, formerly a division of the Russian Empire, constituting the most extensive portion of the Russian domain in Asia. In 1917, when the czar was overthrown, a provisional government was set up in Siberia independent of the one in Petrograd (Leningrad). On the seizure of power by the Bolsheviks, an anti-Bolshevik government was established, but it was soon overthrown by the Soviet authority.

Physical Features. Siberia as it long existed historically extends across the continent of Asia, from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific Ocean on the east, and from China to the Arctic Ocean on the north. The southern boundary is distinctly marked along the western portion by the Thian-Shan Mountains; by the Altai, in the center, and by the Yablonoi, farther east, while the extreme eastern portion of this boundary is formed by the Amur River. The area of old Siberia was about 4,800,000 square miles, but it has been divided into several governments, and the name Siberia has lost its former significance.

The entire region is a vast plain, sloping gradually to the north, but it is naturally divided into western and eastern portions, the western part containing scarcely any elevations, the watershed between the Obi and the Yenesei being so slight that it is scarcely perceptible. The Stanovoi Mountains extend along the eastern coast and rise abruptly from the sea. A spur of this range, extending into the peninsula of Kamchatka, has some peaks that are estimated to have an elevation of nearly 15,000 feet. Between the Stanovoi Mountains and the Lena River are a number of broad elevations, more resembling plateaus than mountain ranges, so that this portion of Siberia has a somewhat mountainous character. The highest peaks are found along the southern border, where the White Mountains, in the great Altai, near the southeastern

boundary, reaches an elevation of 14,800 feet, and other elevations along the ridges forming this boundary, range from 9,000 to 12,000 feet.

Historic Siberia has many long rivers. In their order, from the west eastward, these are the Obi, the Yenesei and the Lena, flowing into the Arctic, and the Amur, flowing into the Pacific. It is estimated that no other country, except Brazil, has so many long rivers as Siberia. The Amur is navigable for about 2,400 miles; but the rivers flowing into the Arctic are of little value commercially, because they are closed by ice during the greater portion of the year. However, steamers ascend these and their tributaries during the summer months and afford the inhabitants of their valleys opportunity to communicate with the outside world.

Climate. The climate of Siberia is characterized by short, warm summers and long and intensely severe winters. Central Siberia is considered to have a colder climate than any other habitable portion of the globe, the thermometer in winter sometimes registering 60° and even 75° below zero. In the northeastern part of the country, the soil remains frozen throughout the year, with the exception of a few inches near the surface, that thaw during the summer. It is supposed to be frozen for several hundred feet below the surface. In excavations that have been made, layers of ice intervening between layers of soil have been found to considerable depths, and geologists are of the opinion that these ice sheets are remains of the glacial age. In the eastern part of the country there is very little rain or snow, and over a good part of the region, it is impossible to use sledges; but in the western portion there is rainfall sufficient for successful agriculture.

Resources and Industry. According to its vegetable life, Siberia can be divided into three regions. The great tundra, occupying the northern portion of the country, has its surface covered with mosses and lichens, except during the short summer, when numerous flowering plants spring up and come to rapid maturity. South of this, occupying the central portion, is the wooded belt, which extends the entire length of the country and contains trees of stunted growth. This gradually merges into the woodland and forest belt, which extends across the entire southern part. This region is believed to contain the most extensive forests known, aside from those of

the Amazon basin. Here are found large areas of pine, spruce, maple, oak, beech, birch and poplar. The summers in this part of Siberia are sufficiently long to admit of the growing of nearly all crops raised in cool temperate regions. Siberia abounds in fur-bearing animals, and the taking and curing of furs is a valuable industry for the inhabitants of some of the colder regions.

The mineral wealth is largely undeveloped. Mining operations are carried on in the Ural Mountains, where gold, silver and platinum are found. Gold mines are also worked to some extent in the eastern and northeastern parts of Siberia, and coal mining has received some attention. There are extensive deposits of salt, sulphur, lead and copper awaiting development.

Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants, and this is most extensive in western Siberia, where large crops of wheat, hay, oats, barley and potatoes are raised. The raising of live stock is also important. The most important manufacturing center is Tomsk, which contains a number of mills and factories and supplies a large region with porcelain, flour, carpets, iron ware and refined sugar.

Transportation. The Trans-Siberian Railroad, extending the entire length of Siberia and connecting Vladivostok, on the Pacific, with Moscow and Leningrad, has been an important factor in the development of the country. By means of this line of transportation, goods from other lands can be imported, and the products of the inhabitants can reach foreign markets at rates of transportation that enable them to be sold with a margin of profit. Because of unsettled conditions this railroad declined considerably in efficiency after the Russian revolution, but steps were taken by Soviet authorities to rehabilitate it. This railway is vital to every interest of Russia in the East. While Japan threatens Russian domination in that area, the road is the only Russian approach to its Eastern interests.

People. Western Siberia is much more densely populated than the other portions of the country. Over sixty per cent of the population are Russians. The other inhabitants include, chiefly, Germans and Aryan gypsies, while in the eastern portion are a number of tribes closely allied to the Samoyeds and Finns. In Eastern Siberia are Tartars, Chinese, Manchus and Koreans. In 1931 the

population was estimated at 11,335,000.

Cities. Under the old régime, Omsk (population 227,000) was the seat of government of the Steppes provinces, but it is geographically in Siberia. Irkutsk (158,500) was the capital of Eastern Siberia; Tomsk (128,400), the capital of Western Siberia. The largest Pacific port, Vladivostok (190,000), was the chief Russian naval station in Asia.

History. Western Siberia was taken by the Russians in 1582, and from that time the purpose of the Russian government was to extend its dominions eastward. It was a long time before the Pacific coast was reached, and the last acquisition of territory, which was obtained from China, was not made until 1861. Following the Chino-Japanese War, in 1896, Russia secured a lease of Port Arthur and other portions of Manchuria, but its failure to keep the treaty agreement to vacate certain ports after 1900 led to the war with Japan in 1904, as a result of which Russian aggressions in the East were checked, and Port Arthur, a part of the island of Sakhalin and some other territory were relinquished.

Under the rule of the czars thousands of political offenders were sent to Siberia, and the name became synonymous with cruelty and despotism. There is no doubt that great injustice characterized the system, and many of the exiles who returned to Russia in 1917 on the downfall of the imperial government, had strongest personal reasons for throwing themselves into the revolutionary movement. The people of Siberia attempted to establish an independent republic at that time, and the Siberian district congress at Tomsk elected a provisional government with a coalition Cabinet.

The overthrow of the Kerensky régime by the Lenine group in November, 1917, gave impetus to Bolshevik sentiment in Siberia, and from that time on there was great political confusion. The situation was affected by several factors, including the march of the Czecho-Slovaks through Siberia and the landing of allied troops to keep the country from falling into anarchy. The Czecho-Slovaks, men of Bohemia and Slovakia, were deserters from the Austrian army. Several thousand had joined the Russians, and when Russia withdrew from the war they were given permission by Lenine to go to France by way of Siberia. While on the march they were attacked by Bolsheviks, and, according to re-

ports, by liberated German and Austrian prisoners. In self-defense they struck back, seized the Trans-Siberian Railway, and were persuaded by the allies to remain in Siberia to help preserve order.

Omsk became the headquarters of the anti-Bolshevik government, and in the fall of 1918 there was established in that city a directorate of the All-Russian Government, representing a coalition of numerous political and social parties. In November Admiral Kolchak, head of the anti-Bolshevik troops in Siberia, was made leader of the government. In the meantime the allies had intervened by sending troops into the country, with the understanding that they were to work under the leadership of Japan, and that each country was to land not more than 7,000 men. The object of intervention was to preserve order and aid in the economic development of the country. The American contingent was commanded by Major-General S. Graves, and the first disembarkation, at Vladivostok, occurred on August 15, 1918. Much criticism was directed against the United States government because of its supposed "do nothing" policy. President Wilson publicly declared that America would not intervene in the domestic affairs of the Russians, and the American officials scrupulously followed this policy, so far as it was possible.

America did take steps, however, to prevent the exploitation of Siberia by Japan. Because of representations made by the State Department Japan withdrew over half its troops from the country, as the Japanese government had sent about ten times as many soldiers as had been agreed upon. America also succeeded in bringing about an inter-allied agreement for the reorganization and operation of the Trans-Siberian Railway, a move which had long been hindered by the Japanese war faction. By March, 1919, American troops had begun to take control of strategic points on the railway between Vladivostok and Tshita, and the system was being reorganized.

The political and military situation was somewhat uncertain in the summer of 1919. For a time Admiral Kolchak had considerable success against the Russian Bolsheviks, but lacking support and supplies he was finally compelled to yield to the greater strength of the Bolshevik army. American and Japanese forces soon withdrew from the country, and Siberia became an integral part of the Socialist Soviet Republic of Russia. As or-

ganized by the Soviet government, Siberia is divided into Eastern and Western Siberian Regions, responsible to Moscow.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

CITIES	
Irkutsk	Tobolsk
Omsk	Vladivostok
LAKES	
Aral	Baikal
MOUNTAINS	
Altai	Ural
Stanovoi	Yablonoi
RIVERS	
Amur	Obi
Lena	Yenessei
UNCLASSIFIED	
Russia	World War
Trans-Siberian Rail- way	

SIBYL, *sib'yl*, according to Greek and Roman mythology, a group of women said to have been endowed by Apollo with prophetic spirit. Their number is generally given as ten, of whom the most celebrated was the *Cumæan sibyl* (from Cumæ, in Campania). She was said to have written the collection of prophecies known as *Sibylline Books*, which she offered to Tarquin the Proud for sale. When he refused to buy them, on account of their excessive price, she threw three of the nine books into the fire. On a second refusal, she destroyed three more, after which Tarquin, in alarm, paid for the three remaining volumes the price originally asked for the nine. These books were preserved in the Temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, and were consulted on occasions of national danger. When, in 83 B. C., they were burned in a fire which destroyed the temple, the Senate sent delegates to Italian and Greek cities to collect all Sibylline verses they could find. About 1,000 were retained and preserved in the new Temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. These were burned by Stilicho shortly after A. D. 400. The so-called Sibylline oracles which have come down to modern times are of Jewish or Christian origin, dating from about 170 B. C. to A. D. 700.

SICILIAN, *siz sil'e an*, **VES'PERS**, the name given to the massacre of the French in Sicily on Easter Monday, 1282, while the bells were ringing for the vesper service. Charles of Anjou had established himself, through the favor of the Pope, in possession of Naples and Sicily. He ruled with great severity, and the oppressed people applied in vain to the Pope for relief. Enraged by the insult offered a young bride by a French soldier, the inhabitants of Palermo flew to

arms and massacred the French. Messina and other towns followed the example of Palermo, and the Sicilian Vespers ended in the overthrow of the domination of Charles of Anjou.

SICILIES, *sis'ulz*, KINGDOM OF THE TWO, a former kingdom of Italy, consisting of Naples, or southern Italy, and Sicily (see **SICILY**). About 1037, while Greeks and Saracens were struggling for the possession of Lower Italy and Sicily, the sons of Tancred de Hauteville, a count in Lower Normandy, entered Lower Italy with their followers. Robert Guiscard, one of these brothers, subdued Apulia and Calabria, taking the title of duke, and his youngest brother, Count Roger, conquered Sicily. Roger's son and successor, Roger II, completed the conquest of all Lower Italy by subduing Capua, Amalfi and Naples, and in 1130 he took the title of king, calling his kingdom the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

In 1189 the race of Tancred became extinct, and the German emperor, Henry VI, of the House of Hohenstaufen, claimed the kingdom in the right of his wife, the daughter of Roger II. The kingdom remained with the family of Hohenstaufen until 1266, when Pope Urban IV, feudal overlord, bestowed it upon Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX of France.

In 1282, Sicily freed herself from the oppressions of the French (see **SICILIAN VESPER**) by the aid of King Pedro of Aragon, and Naples was separated from it, Sicily being subject to the kings of Aragon. Naples remained under the rule of the House of Anjou. Alfonso V of Aragon gained possession of Naples in 1442, which he bestowed on his natural son, Ferdinand.

In 1504 Sicily was united to Naples under the Spanish crown, but in 1713 the Peace of Utrecht again divided the Two Sicilies, Naples falling to Austria, Sicily to Savoy. Philip V of Spain reconquered Sicily, but was forced to cede it to Austria in 1720, Savoy receiving Sardinia in exchange, by which means the Two Sicilies became a part of the Austrian dominions.

In 1734 Don Carlos, son of Philip V, invaded Naples, conquered both the continental and the insular part of the kingdom and was crowned at Palermo in 1735 as Charles IV. This change was sanctioned by the Treaty of Vienna (1738), and till 1860 this line of the Bourbon family maintained possession of the Two Sicilies, except for a few years during the Napoleonic period, when Joseph Bona-

parte and Joachim Murat reigned on the mainland as kings of Naples.

Francis I, Ferdinand II, and Francis II were despotic tyrants, who forced the people into periodic revolts, which were put down with much severity. In 1860, however, an insurrection broke out in Sicily, and an expedition of volunteers from Piedmont and other Italian provinces, under Garibaldi, sailed from Genoa to the assistance of the insurgents. The result was that the Neapolitan troops were driven from the island. Garibaldi, following up his success, crossed over to the mainland, where he met little or no opposition. Francis II fled from Naples; the strong places in his hands were reduced, and by a popular vote the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies ceased to exist as such, and became a part of the kingdom of Italy. See **ITALY**, subhead *History*.

SICILY, *sis'ul'i*, a mountainous island, the largest in the Mediterranean, belonging to Italy, from the southwestern extremity of which it is separated by the narrow Strait of Messina. It has an area of about 9,935 square miles. The north and east coasts are steep and cliffy and are provided with good harbors, the finest being that of Palermo. The greater part of the surface consists of a plateau of varying elevation, and the highest point is the active volcano of Etna, in the eastern part of the island.

Climate. The climate, as in the other regions of the Mediterranean, is mild, and agreeable, except when the island is visited by the sirocco. The soil is very fertile.

Industries and Manufactures. Three-fourths of the cultivated surface is given over to cereals, chiefly wheat, although oats and barley are also grown. Cotton, sugar and tobacco are also cultivated to some extent. Fruits of every variety grow in abundance. The vine flourishes almost everywhere, and much wine is produced. The chief exports are fruits, wine, sulphur, olive oil and sumach. Tunny and sardine fisheries are carried on along the coast. Manufactures are but little developed. The chief seats of foreign commerce are the three principal towns, Palermo, Messina and Catania. The system of roads and railways is defective. Education is extremely backward. Life and property are by no means secure, and brigandage still exists.

History. At the dawn of history, the older races inhabiting Sicily, the Sicans and the Siculi, were hemmed in by Phœnician and

Greek colonies The Greeks, who entered the island in the eighth century B. C., founded the great cities of Syracuse, Agrigentum and Messina. They drove the Phoenicians to the northwest coast and spread their influence and culture over the whole island. Greek art and literature flourished, and many Greek names of distinction are connected with Sicily. The Carthaginians later took the place of their kinsmen, the Phoenicians, and between them and the Greeks a struggle ensued, which ended in favor of the latter (480 B. C.).

War with the Carthaginians brought the Romans to Sicily, and the island became a Roman province in 212 B. C. On the decline of the Roman Empire, the island was overrun by the Goths, who retained possession till the sixth century A. D., when Sicily became part of the Byzantine Empire. In the beginning of the ninth century, the Saracens gained control and continued their supremacy until their expulsion in the eleventh century by the Normans, who remained long enough in possession to establish the feudal system in all its rigor. The story of Sicily from this point until the island became a part of the new kingdom of Italy is told in the preceding article

Sicily for generations had been the headquarters of a dreaded secret society called the Mafia. On the pretext of protecting the poor and the weak, its members engaged in a class struggle which was marked by countless robberies and murders. Benito Mussolini, Fascist dictator of Italy, took cognizance of the lawless state of affairs, and in 1930 and 1931 instituted action to suppress the marauding society. Hundreds of its leaders were brought to trial. Population, 1931, 3,896,866.

SIDDONS, *síd'un*, SARAH KEMBLE (1755-1831), the most celebrated English actress of her time, the daughter of Roger Kemble. She was born at Brecon, Wales. After her first success at Cheltenham, in *Venue Preserved*, in 1774, she secured an engagement at Drury Lane Theater, London, which was almost a failure, and again went on a circuit in the provinces. On her second appearance at Drury Lane, in 1782, as Isabella in *The Fatal Marriage*, she was acknowledged to be the foremost tragic actress of the English stage, and this distinction she retained until her retirement in 1818. She captivated audiences as Queen Catherine in *Henry VIII*, Lady Macbeth, Volturnia in *Coriolanus*, and many other parts. Sir Joshua Reynolds

painted a celebrated picture of her as the "Tragic Muse."

SIDEREAL, *si dé're al*, TIME, time measured by the apparent motion of the stars. A *sidereal day* is the time from the passage of a star across the meridian till its next passage; it is exactly the period of the revolution of the earth on its axis. It is the most constant unit of time. Its length is 23 hours, 56 minutes, 4.098 seconds. A *sidereal year* is the period in which the fixed stars apparently complete a revolution and come to the same point in the heavens; it is the exact period of the revolution of the earth around the sun. There are 366 2563612 sidereal days in a sidereal year.

SIDNEY, PHILIP, Sir (1554-1586), an English soldier, courtier and poet, one of the most conspicuous figures at the court of Queen Elizabeth. After graduating at Oxford, he traveled through Europe, and on his return he was most cordially received by Queen Elizabeth. During an absence from court, forced upon him by his outspoken opposition to a projected marriage of the queen, he wrote his famous romance of *Arcadia*. It is said that at one time, when, with Sir Francis Drake, he planned to set out on an expedition to the West Indies, Elizabeth commanded him to remain in England, saying that she could not lose the "jewel of her kingdom." Sidney had a part in England's attempt to defend the Dutch against the Spaniards, and at the Battle of Zutphen he was mortally wounded. While he was being carried from the battlefield, he called for water, but when it was brought to him, he motioned it away and said to a wounded soldier whom he saw regarding him wistfully, "Thy need is greater than mine." Sidney's death was deeply mourned throughout England. Though his writings have much merit, it is chiefly as a perfect type of the English gentleman that he is remembered.

SIDON, *sí'dun*, one of the leading cities of ancient Phoenicia, situated on the Mediterranean, twenty-five miles south of Beirut. At various times it alternated with Tyre in supremacy in the Phoenician confederacy.

Sidon was famed for its purple dyes. Its people were skilled traders and artisans. Pliny credits them with the discovery and manufacture of a glass from the fine sand of the Belus River. A number of magnificent sarcophagi have been found in the vicinity of Sidon. The modern town of Saida, with a

population of about 12,000, occupies a portion of the site of the ancient city. See PHOENICIA; TYRE.

SIEGE, *see*, in war, the stationing of an army before a fortified place for the purpose of forcing its surrender. In conducting a siege the enemy is first surrounded and cut off from supplies, reinforcements and retreat. The attacking party intrenches itself completely around and outside the land works of the defender and patrols the water front, if the fortification is situated on the water. A prolonged siege may starve the defender into submission, but the possibility of a relieving force causes the siege in many cases to end in an assault. Tunneling under walls and blowing them up with mines, bombardment by artillery fire, every engineering device known, may be applied in the conduct of a siege. In the latest warfare, bombardment along an extended line is a more common form of siege than the surrounding of a fort.

There have been many famous sieges in history, marked by heroic resistance of garrisons and inspiring bravery of assailants. Such are the fourteen months' siege of La Rochelle by Cardinal Richelieu in 1628; the four years' siege of the rock of Gibraltar by the French and Spanish during the years 1779-1783, and the siege of Port Arthur by the Japanese in 1904. In the World War there were sieges at Verdun, Namur, Mauberge, Novo Georgievsk and Przemyśl; the campaigns on the various fronts, in which the armies of both sides intrenched themselves for months at a time, took on many of the characteristics of gigantic, prolonged sieges. See BOMBARDMENT, FORTIFICATION.

SIENKIEWICZ, *shen kyə'vich*, **HENRYK** (1846-1916), a Polish author of a number of historical novels of tense dramatic interest, notably *Quo Vadis*, which has been given repeated stage as well as film rendition. He was born in the province of Siedlce, and was educated at the University of Warsaw. His first publication was a humorous story, *Nobody is a Prophet in His Own Country*. He wrote descriptions of a visit to California, a drama, and a number of short stories before the publication, in 1880, of a novel, *The Tatar Bondage*. The powerful historical trilogy, *With Fire and Sword*, *The Deluge* and *Pan Michael*, paved the way for his greater success, *Quo Vadis*, published in 1895. Notable among his other novels are *Without Dogma*, *The Children of the Soil*, *Knights of*

the Cross and *In Desert and Woodland*. In 1905 he was awarded the Nobel prize for literature. The translation of his works have given him an extended, appreciative audience in all countries. Sienkiewicz died in Switzerland while on a relief mission in behalf of his country, rendered prostrate in the World War.

SIERRA LEONE, *la ohn'*, a British colony and protectorate on the west coast of Africa. The colony embraces a narrow coastal strip varying in width from eight to twenty miles and extending from French Guinea, on the north, to the Mano River on the south. It was founded in 1791 by a group of English philanthropists as a refuge for negro slaves. It has a population of about 75,000. The Sierra Leone Protectorate, embracing an area of about 30,000 square miles, lies to the east of the colony. It has a population of 1,456,000, consisting chiefly of negro tribes.

Near the coast the surface is flat and rocky; in the interior it is hilly, some elevations attaining a height of from 2,000 to 3,000 feet. The country is watered by a number of streams, flowing to the Atlantic. The climate is exceedingly hot and unhealthy, especially along the coast. The soil is fertile, the rainfall heavy, and abundant crops of rice, corn, plantains, yams, cassava and pumpkins are raised. Sugar cane, coffee, ginger, indigo and cotton can also be grown with profit. Tropical fruits are native, and bananas, pineapples, oranges and pomegranates are found in abundance. Some parts of the colony are covered with dense forests containing teak, ebony and rosewood. The chief exports include pepper, oil seed, palm oil, kola nuts, rubber, cocoa, ginger, hides, ivory, rice and beeswax.

The territory is administered by a governor. The capital, Freetown, has a population of 55,360 (1931), of whom 600 are Europeans.

SIERRA MADRE, *mal'dray*, the name of two mountain ranges of Mexico, which run almost parallel with the coast on either side, enclosing the central plateau of Anahuac. Following the curves of the coast, the ranges come closer together as they extend farther southward, and a little south of Mexico City they are practically connected by a range of volcanoes. The western range, *Sierra Madre Occidental*, averages over 8,000 feet in height, and has peaks more than 10,000 feet high; the eastern range, *Sierra Madre Oriental*, is considerably lower. Orchards of olives,

chestnuts and oranges grow at the bases of the mountains.

SIERRA NEVADA, *ne vah'da*, a mountain range of Spain, extending for about sixty miles in a northeast-southwest direction, near the southeastern border of the country. The range is about twenty-five miles from the Mediterranean coast and rises very abruptly. The Sierra Nevadas are the highest mountains in the Spanish peninsula, and the highest peak is the Mulhacen, 11,420 feet. The summits of the range are covered with snow during the greater part of the year, and it is from this fact that they obtain their name, which means *snowy range*. The lower elevations and the valleys between the mountains are fertile and are covered with orchards of olives, chestnuts and oranges.

SIERRA NEVADAS, a mountain range in California, extending north and south along the eastern boundary of the state, from Tehachapi Pass, on the south, to the southern part of Oregon. By some geographers the Sierra Nevadas are considered to belong to the same range as the Cascade Mountains, which extend northward through Oregon and Washington.

The Sierra Nevadas form an almost unbroken range, with an average width of seventy miles; and they contain numerous lofty peaks, reaching altitudes of from 10,000 to nearly 15,000 feet. The most prominent of these peaks are Mount Whitney, 14,980 feet, the loftiest summit in the United States, outside of Alaska; Fisherman Peak, 14,448 feet; Mount Corcoran, 14,093 feet, and Kaweah Peak, 14,000 feet. There are several other peaks that exceed 13,000 feet. The Sierra Nevadas contain many deep, narrow valleys, with nearly vertical walls, in some instances thousands of feet in height. Of these, Yosemite Valley is a good example. These valleys, combined with the lofty peaks, make the scenery of the Sierra Nevadas noted for grandeur. There are several passes traversing the range. The best known of these are the Truckee Pass, through which the Southern Pacific Railway reaches the Sacramento Valley; the San Joaquin Pass, in the center of the range, and the Tehachapi Pass, in the south.

SIGEL, *se'gel*, **FRANZ** (1824-1902), an American general, born in Baden, Germany. He was a veteran soldier of the German revolution of 1848; went to England in 1851, and emigrated to America the following year.

From 1853 until the outbreak of the Civil War, he was a teacher and journalist. In 1861 he entered the Federal army and organized a regiment of infantry and a battery of artillery. He fought with distinguished valor at Pea Ridge, Bull Run, in the Shenandoah Valley and at Maryland Heights. After his victory at Pea Ridge he was made a major-general. From 1865, when he resigned from the army, until his death, he filled various public offices in New York City and devoted much of his time to writing.

SIGISMUND, *sif's mund*, (about 1368-1437) Holy Roman Emperor from 1411 to 1437, and king of Bohemia in 1419. He was crowned King of Hungary in 1387, but was forced to defend his title. In 1401, with a powerful army, he reduced the country to subjection. As Holy Roman Emperor he convened the Council of Constance, which put an end to the Hussite controversy; for his desertion of John Huss, whom he had promised to protect, he was bitterly censured.

SIGMA XI. A college honorary scientific fraternity, organized in 1886 at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. The name, Sigma Xi, is the initials of two Greek words, meaning "companions in zealous research." Its aim is to honor students of scientific attainments, as Phi Beta Kappa (which see) honors students of high standing in literary scholarship.

There are more than thirty chapters in as many colleges, membership being offered both to professors and students, men and women, and to other scientific workers who have achieved eminence in some field of pure or applied science.

SIGNAL CORPS. In the World War troops on battle fronts more than 250 miles in extent were moved as a unit, and those not acquainted with modern methods of directing military operations wondered how this could be done. These extensive operations were made possible because of the efficiency of the signal corps, which has been called the "eyes and nerves" of the service. The signal corps is that branch of the army whose duty it is to gather and transmit information.

The members of the signal corps are trained until they become experts in every known means of communication by day or night, from the light of a match that can be seen only for a few yards to the flashes of the heliograph, hundreds of miles away. The implements used are the telegraph, telephone, wireless, flags, lights, the heliograph, the

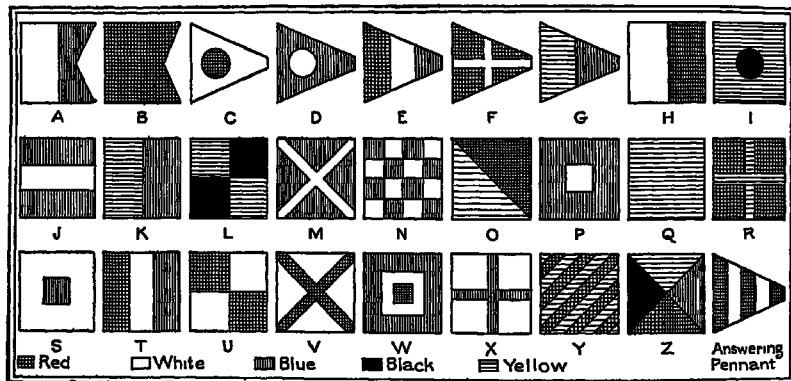
airplane and captive balloons, and the corps must be prepared to set up and operate any one of these devices and even to lay cables at an instant's notice.

The World War. During the World War the signal corps of the various armies were the means of enabling the commanding officers to direct the movements of their forces successfully; most of the communications they received were sent from airplanes flying over the enemy's lines to ascertain his position and intentions. The information thus gained enabled the commanders so to direct artillery fire as to make it most effective; it also enabled them to move troops to positions where they were most needed during an engagement.

History, in the United States. The signal corps was organized in 1860 when Major

SIGNALING, the art of transmitting messages by means of visual or auditory signs. The various methods of signaling are employed by telegraph companies, by armies, by ships at sea and by railroads. The most efficient signaling is done by means of electricity, and the dot-and-dash system in connection with which it is employed has been applied to the handling of nearly every sort of signaling device. The newest communication is by radio, but it lacks the permanent record feature of the telegraph, which frequently is important.

The most common method of making visual signals is by means of flags, heliographs, lanterns and torches. The first two are used only in daylight (the heliograph only in sunlight) and the latter two at night. The flag indicates the sign by its position; the heli-



INTERNATIONAL CODE OF SIGNALS

Albert J. Myer was appointed chief signal officer. During the Civil War the corps rendered efficient service in all battles and in the navy. In 1870 the Secretary of War was authorized by Congress to provide for taking meteorological observations throughout the country and forecasting the weather by the signal corps. In 1891 this part of the service was organized as the Weather Bureau (which see) and placed under the Department of Agriculture. The signal corps was then organized as a separate branch of the army and placed under the command of General William B. Hazen.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Army
Flag
Flying Machine
Heliograph

Navy
Signaling
Telegraph, Wireless
Weather Bureau

graph by length of the flash, which is regulated by a shutter. The flag employed for the dot-and-dash code usually has a solid ground with the square of another color in the center. In the United States army it is orange with a red center or red with an orange center; in the navy nearly always it is blue with a white center—sometimes a red and yellow diagonal.

The sender of the flag message stands erect, facing the person who receives it, the flag pole held vertically before him, the flag above his head. The position indicating the dot brings the flag downward to his left in an arc of ninety degrees; the position indicating the dash necessitates a similar movement to the left. A pause after a word or sentence is signified by swinging the flag round to the

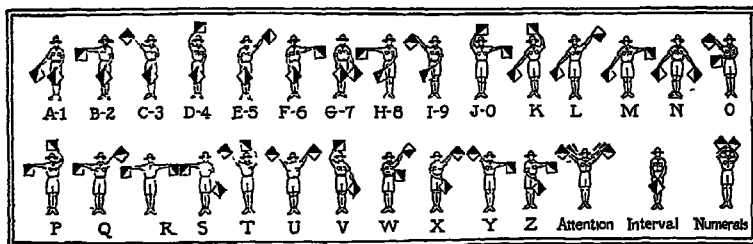
signaler's feet in a position known as "front." The lantern and torch are similarly employed, the only difference being that two lights are necessary—one of them stationary at the signaler's feet, to secure a point of reference. Flashlight communications are delivered with the aid of a shutter, which regulates the length of the beam, the long signifying the dash, the short the dot, as in the case of the heliograph.

The system of signaling known to surveyors and boy scouts is adapted from the two-arm semaphore, which is a stationary pole with two movable arms at the top. The com-

mandable at a distance of half a mile, and it is necessary to repeat the sound every half minute. The dismal booming at regular intervals of a gun at sea as a signal of distress is another common maritime signal.

For obvious reasons the practicability of military sound signals is limited, such signals having place in the every-day routine of an army rather than serving as a means of communication in presence of an enemy.

SIGN LANGUAGE, a system of communication by gestures and movements of the hands and fingers and without speaking.



BOY SCOUTS' SIGNAL CODE

bbinations of positions indicate the alphabet and numerals. Two identical flags, usually square and divided in half diagonally by two colors, are employed in the semaphore code.

Although wireless telegraphy has largely superseded all other means of communication at sea, there is an international code employing twenty-six flags of different design—one for each letter of the alphabet—still widely employed for marine signaling. Other important series of signals, each of which has a distinct signification, are those employed by national weather bureaus to indicate forecasts. The heliograph, as its name indicates, is a device which reflects the sunlight. It can be used with the Morse code. (See **HELIOGRAPH**). Lanterns and torches may be used in the same way in military signaling, though this class of signals is most widely used for lighthouses.

Sound signals, though of considerable importance, are far more limited in use than the visual. The fog horn, the bugle, the whistle, the drum, each has its arbitrary signal. The fog horn is operated either by steam or by air pressure supplied from shore. These are powerful sirens, which may be heard seven or eight miles, though, owing to the effect of fog on sound transmission, they are sometimes

The simplest system is that used by the American Indians of different tribes. Their gestures and symbols were so natural and sprang so directly from their feelings, that tribes often hundreds of miles apart, who rarely came in contact with each other, were able to communicate with little difficulty. The following are typical Indian signs. *Strength* and its allied ideas, in all their applications, were represented by the motion of breaking a strong stick. *Wolf* was represented by two fingers extended at the side of the head, indicating the two erect ears. *White man* was represented by drawing a finger across the forehead, to indicate the presence of a hat or cap.

Since the sixteenth century a sign language has been employed in educating the deaf and dumb. At first the signs were of much the same sort as the Indian signs; later an arbitrary system employing the alphabet was adopted, and by means of it the deaf mute can convey any idea with his hands (see **DEAF AND DUMB; ALPHABET**). For long distance communication beyond the range of the voice, flags are used, the letter being indicated by the design of the flag itself or by the position in which it is held by the person communicating. See **SIGNALING**

SIGSBEE, CHARLES DWIGHT (1845-1923), a rear-admiral of the United States navy, born at Albany, N. Y., and educated at Annapolis. He took part, under Farragut, in the Battle of Mobile Bay in 1864. As director of an expedition for exploring the bottom of the Gulf of Mexico, he introduced many original methods and received high honors from his government and from foreign countries. Sigbee became a captain in the navy in 1897, and was in command of the battleship *Maine* at the time of its destruction in Havana, February 15, 1898. In the Spanish-American War he commanded the auxiliary cruiser *Saint Paul* and afterward the battleship *Texas*. In 1900 he was appointed chief officer of naval intelligence, became rear-admiral in 1904, and later was made a member of the naval general board. He retired from active service in 1907.

SIGURD, se'gurd, in northern mythology, the hero of the *Volsung Edda*, identical with the Siegfried of the Germans. When he had grown to young manhood, he was given the sword of his father Sigmund, which Odin, from whom he was descended, had bestowed, and he set forth to slay the dragon Fafnir and to gain possession of the fabulous wealth which Fafnir guarded. After killing this monster, Sigurd ate its heart and was thus enabled to understand the language of the birds, who told about Brunhilde, a Valkyr, who had been condemned by Odin to a deep sleep in a palace surrounded by flames, until she should be awakened by some hero. Sigurd rescued the sleeping maiden, who proved to be so beautiful that he at once fell in love with her. Promising to return shortly to claim her, he again set forth on his adventures, now journeying to the land of the Niblungs.

The wife of the king of the Niblungs, a sorceress, brewed for Sigurd a potion which caused him to forget Brunhilde and to fall in love with her daughter, Gudrun, whom he married Gudrun's brother, Gunther, was desirous of marrying Brunhilde, but she could not be won without a struggle. Sigurd, assuming the form of Gunther, won Brunhilde, but when she came to the court to be married to the prince of the Niblungs, Sigurd, in spite of his love potion, recognized her and was filled with remorse. Brunhilde, unable to forgive him for his apparent faithlessness, had him put to death, and then killed herself on his funeral pyre.

SIKHS, *seeks* (from a Sanskrit word meaning *disciple*), a religious sect in North-western India, of which the Punjab is the principal seat. They are worshippers of one invisible God. Their founder was Nanak Shah, born in 1469, who sought to combine Mohammedans and Hindus into one brotherhood. The political state of the Sikhs was established by Govind Singh, or Singh, the ninth ruler from Nanak, who abolished the system of castes and gave all men equal rights. Upon his death in 1708, the Sikhs gradually yielded to the superior power of the Mohammedans. A small number, however, escaped to inaccessible mountains and preserved the doctrines of their fathers and an inextinguishable hatred toward the Mohammedans. Later they left the mountains, subdued all Lahore and formed a number of independent communities, each governed by a *sirdar*.

In 1792 Ranjit Singh established himself as their despotic ruler, with the title of Maharajah. After Ranjit Singh's death, in 1839, a period of anarchy followed. In 1845 (First Sikh War) the Sikhs attacked the British under Sir Hugh Gough, at Mudki, resulting in the defeat of the Sikhs at Ferozeshah and the signing of a treaty by which Great Britain held the city of Lahore and a British resident took supervision of the government. In 1849, during the Second Sikh War, the power of the Sikhs was completely broken, and the Punjab was annexed to the British Empire in India. The Sikhs are an agricultural people noted for their great powers of endurance and courage. In 1936 their number was about 3,300,000, two-thirds of whom are in the Punjab.

SI KIANG, se kyahng', or WU NI KIANG, a river of China, which rises in the province of Yunnan, flows east and southeast and discharges into the China Sea through numerous mouths, on one of which the city of Canton is situated. The Si Kiang is about 1,500 miles long and is navigable for large vessels about seventy-five miles.

SILESIA, si le' shi ah, until 1919 the largest province of Prussia, and one of the richest portions of the former German Empire. The Treaty of Versailles, which made settlements of the many territorial problems affecting Germany after its defeat in the World War, decreed that Silesia should be divided, to meet the desires of its people for political alliances based on race. Germany protested the loss of any part of the rich province, with

the result that a vote was taken to establish the people's preference. Silesia then had an area of 15,368 square miles. When the vote was taken, a small part of its area was awarded to Czechoslovakia and another part to Poland, leaving German Silesia slightly more than 13,000 square miles.

The old province was rich in mineral deposits, especially in coal, in production of which it led all other German provinces. The richest of these fields went to Czechoslovakia and Poland after the plebiscite, thus crippling the industry of the Reich. Zinc deposits here are among the most valuable in the world, but while the mineral wealth is great, agriculture is the main employment of the people. All products of the temperate zone are raised—wheat, corn, sugar beets, flax, potatoes, and the like. Cattle-raising is an important phase of agriculture. Among the industries are manufactures of cotton and woolen goods and earthenware.

Silesia has had a troubled history. Lying in the path of civilization's advance from the east and southeast, it early knew many masters. In time it came into the old Polish kingdom and then became historically important. In the second partition of Poland it went to Austria, and at the close of the Seven Years' War it was ceded to Frederick the Great of Prussia. When Prussia became the chief state of the new German Empire in 1871, Silesia was apparently settled for all time in a preferred position as one of the most favored sections of the realm. Its present division among Germany, Czechoslovakia, and Poland does not necessarily decide its all-time lot, for Poland covets more of its area than the allotment made, and Germany is loath to lose so rich a part of the old Reich. Silesia is likely to be affected by any political disturbance in Central Europe. See GERMANY; PRUSSIA.

SILICA, *sil'kah*, a chemical compound of oxygen and silicon, one of the most widely-distributed substances in the earth. Silica forms a principal ingredient in nearly all the earthly minerals. Sand, gravel, sandstone, flint and quartz are composed almost entirely of this material, and feldspar, granite, clay, mica, slate and other rocks contain it. It occurs either in crystals or in amorphous masses. Amethyst, jasper and cat's eye, are crystallized silica; chalcedony, onyx, opal and agate are amorphous silica variously colored. Pure amorphous silica is a white powder solu-

ble only in hydrofluoric acid. Silica forms a number of hydrates which have acid properties and from which a great number of salts, known as silicates, are obtained.

SILICON, *sil'kahn*, a non-metallic element more widely-distributed in nature than any other substance except oxygen. It does not occur in a free state, but is combined with other minerals. It forms the chief constituent of sand, flint, quartz, many other rocks and in some precious stones, occurring frequently in crystalline form. In one form silicon is a brown powder, but it may also exist in a modified form, consisting of shining metallic scales.



A Persian Making Silk

SILK Long before man invented the spinning wheel, or had even begun to clothe himself with the skins of animals, nature had provided the world with some of the most skillful spinners ever known. One of these is a little worm about three inches long, that spins an unbroken thread from 1,500 to 3,000 feet in length. This is the silkworm, and its thread is the fine glossy fiber we know as silk. The silkworm is the caterpillar of the silk moth, which is characterized by a short body, stout legs and white wings, marked by black lines running parallel with the wing borders. When extended, the wings measure about two inches across.

Formation of the Fiber. In the wild state the female deposits her eggs in summer on the leaves of the mulberry tree, but in silk culture the moths are placed on pieces of paper or of muslin, on which they deposit their eggs, which are of a bluish color and about the size of a pin head. Each female will deposit from 200 to 500 eggs. Forty thousand eggs weigh about an ounce. For hatching artificially the eggs are placed in a room heated gradually up to a temperature of about 75° F. The room must be kept scrupulously clean and well ventilated. In eight or ten days the young appear. The caterpillars are then covered with sheets of paper or loose muslin, over which finely chopped young mulberry leaves are scattered. The caterpillars soon find their way through

the meshes of the cloth or openings in the paper to the leaves, upon which they begin to feed.

When first hatched, the worms are black and about a quarter of an inch long. The caterpillar stage lasts from six to eight weeks, and during this period the worm generally casts its skin four times. After casting its skin the last time the caterpillar is about two inches long, and in ten days it attains its full growth of three inches. The body consists of twelve segments, with six fore legs and ten legs on the hinder segments of the body, provided with hooks. The mouth is large, with powerful jaws, and the color is greenish-gray.

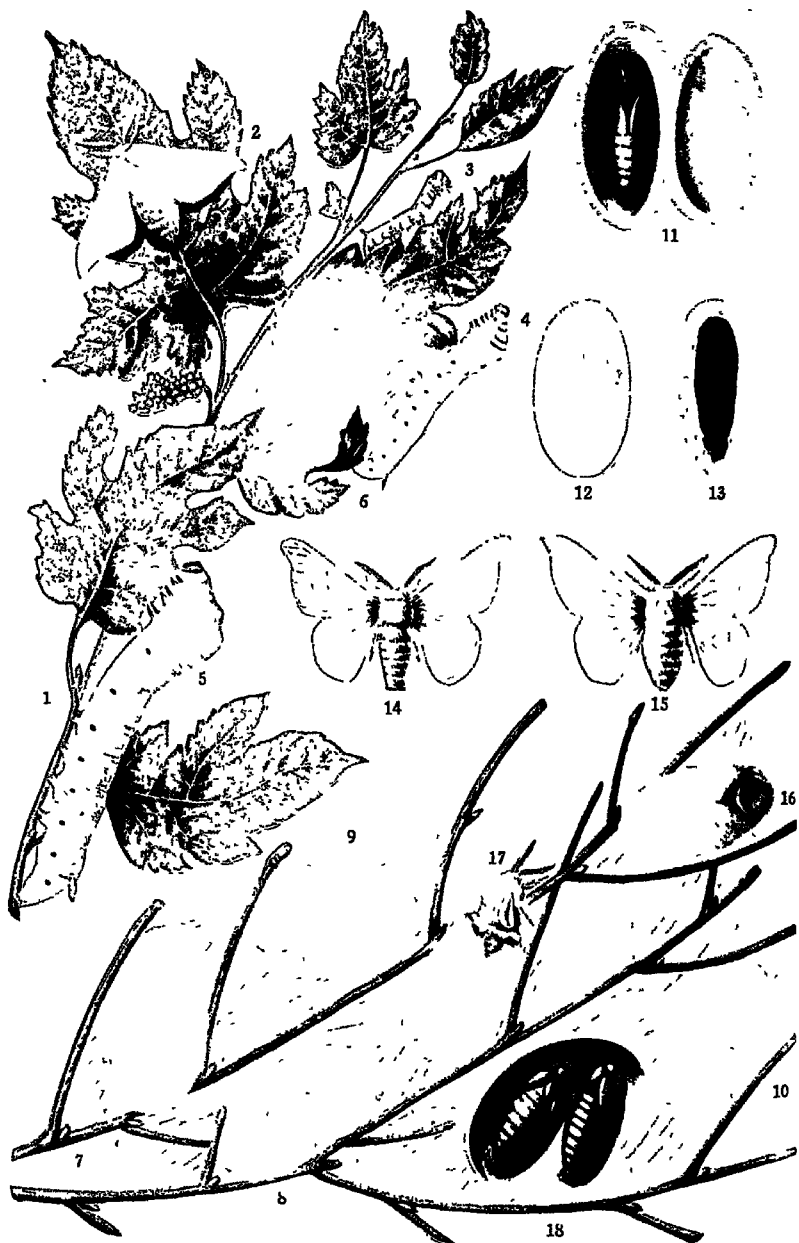
At this stage the caterpillar becomes languid, refuses food and prepares to spin its cocoon. If left to itself it will sew two leaves together and spin the cocoon between them, but in silk culture the worms are usually placed in racks containing small cells, to the sides of which the cocoon is attached. The silk thread is formed from a sticky fluid contained in two tubular glands, one on each side of the body, connected with a prominent opening in the lower lip, called the *spinneret*. This opening has two apertures, and as the fluid issues from these in minute streams and comes in contact with the air, it hardens into a strong, glossy thread. When examined under the microscope, one of these threads is seen to be composed of two strands, lying side by side. This appearance is caused by the two minute strands that issue from the spinnerets, uniting as they come in contact and forming one thread. The time required for spinning the cocoon is from three to five days. While doing the work the caterpillar attaches itself to the support by its hind legs and places the thread by moving its head from point to point. The average length of thread in a perfect cocoon is about 1,000 yards, though it may vary from 800 to 1,000 yards.

If left to themselves in a warm place, the cocoons will hatch in about three weeks, but those from which silk is to be obtained are not allowed to hatch. This is prevented by placing them in a warm oven or in hot water, which kills the pupa. It requires twelve pounds of cocoons to yield one pound of raw silk, and one ounce of silkworms' eggs will produce 100 pounds of cocoons. The female moth produces from 300 to 500 eggs. For the successful cultivation of the silkworm,

vigorous and healthy mulberry trees are necessary, the white mulberry being the favorite species. China, Japan, India, Italy, France and Spain are important silk-producing countries, though silk culture is found in several others.

Manufacture. In the manufacture of silk, the first operation is the unwinding of the cocoons and the *reeling* of the silk. For this purpose they are placed in shallow vessels containing hot water, which softens the gummy matter of the cocoons. The ends of the filaments are then conducted by guides to large reels moved by machinery. Four or five threads, from as many different cocoons, are thus brought together, and, uniting by means of the gum, form one thread. The outside fiber is coarser than that which it encloses and is usually taken off separately. The silk thus produced is called *raw* silk. Before it can be woven into cloth the raw silk must be *thrown*. Throwing is often a special trade, but it is usually conducted by machinery in large mills. It consists in spinning, twisting and reeling. Previous to throwing, the silk is carefully washed, wound on bobbins and assorted as to its quality. In the throwing machine it is again unwound from the bobbins, twisted by the revolutions of a flyer and then wound on a reel. The twist of the silk is regulated as required by varying the relative velocities of the flyer and reel. The silk thus prepared is called *singles* and is used for weaving common or plain silks and ribbons. The next operation, called *doubling*, is the twisting of two or more of these threads on one bobbin. This is done in a throwing machine, and the silk thus spun is called *tram* silk, commonly used for the web of richer silks and velvets. Two or more of these threads of tram silk twisted in the throwing mill together constitute *organzine*, a species of silk thread used for warps of fine fabrics. But in tram silk the threads are all twisted in one direction, forming individual strands like twine, whereas in organzine the collected threads are twisted in an opposite direction to the twist of the strands, like cable or rope. The silk in this condition is called *hard*, in consequence of the gum, which is, however, separated by careful boiling.

Silk is woven on looms similar to those used in weaving cotton and wool (see *WEAVING*). In the United States power looms are employed wholly, but in Europe many hand looms are still found, while in China they



SILKWORM

- 1, Branch of Mulberry Tree
 2, Moth laying eggs
 3 and 4, Worms in different
 stages of development
 5, Full grown Worm
 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, Cocoons of various
 tints on branches of trees
 11, Ordinary cocoon opened
 12, Cocoon with coarse silk
 removed
 13, Cocoon after the fine
 silk has been removed
 14, Male Moth
 15, Female Moth
 16, Cocoon showing opening
 made by moth in coming out
 17, Moth coming out of cocoon
 18, A double cocoon opened



1



2



3



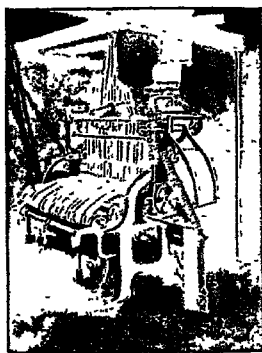
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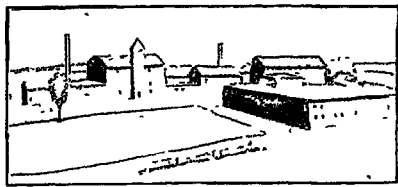
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9

SILK

1. Feeding mulberry leaves to silk worms
2. Picking cocoons from branches
3. Weighing and sorting cocoons

4. Reeling silk from cocoons
5. Rewinding silk into skeins
6. Sorting skeins

7. Weaving silk
8. Silk products
9. Silk factory

Outline on Silk

I SILK MOTH

- (1) Description
 - (a) Body
 - (b) Legs
 - (c) Wings
 - (d) Number of eggs

II. SILK WORMS (Wild)

III. SILK WORMS (Culture)

- (1) Eggs
 - (a) Number
 - (b) Deposited when?
 - (c) Temperature for hatching
 - (d) Time of incubation
- (2) Caterpillars
 - (a) Early appearance
 - (b) Care
 - (c) Food
 - (d) Development
 - (e) Casting size
 - (f) Body
- (3) Cocoon Development
 - (a) Racks
 - (b) Tubular glands
 - (c) Spinneret
 - (d) Time
 - (e) Length of thread
 - (f) Hatching

Time required
Prevention of

- (g) Proportionate weight in silk

- (4) Origin of Industry

IV. MANUFACTURE

- (1) Unwinding cocoons
- (2) Reeling silk
 - (a) Description of process
- (3) Raw Silk
 - (a) Why and when washed?
 - (b) How wound?
 - (c) How assorted?
- (4) Throwing—necessary before weaving
 - (a) Spinning, twisting, reeling
 - (b) Usually done by machinery
 - (c) Regulation of twist
 - (d) Single
 - (e) Sewing silk
- (5) Doubling
 - (a) Tram silk
 - (b) Threads twisted in one direction

- (6) Organzine

- (a) Threads twisted in opposite directions

- (b) Hard silk

- (7) Weaving

- (a) Modes
- (b) Peculiarities
- (c) Intricacies

- (8) Waste Silk

- (a) Consists of what?
- (b) Processes
- (c) Use

V COUNTRIES

- (1) Raw Silk

- (a) China, Japan, Italy, France

- (2) Manufactured Silk

- (a) France, Germany, Switzerland, United States

VI. ARTIFICIAL SILK

- (1) Composition
- (2) How produced
- (3) Value
- (4) How extensively used?

Questions on Silk

Give three reasons why silk is more expensive than cotton.

Name five articles in your home that are made from silk.

What is the length of a thread furnished by a cocoon?

Why are not cocoons intended for silk permitted to hatch? How is this prevented?

How many pounds of cocoons are required to yield one pound of raw silk?

How many pounds of cocoons will an ounce of silkworms' eggs produce?

During the caterpillar stage how many times does the worm cast its skin?

Describe the formation of the fiber.

How long a continuous thread can the silkworm spin?

What city in the United States produces the most silk cloth?

Why is tin sometimes referred to in silk manufacture?

Is artificial silk an acceptable substitute for real silk?

are used entirely. The fineness and softness of silk fiber make it possible to manufacture from it a greater variety of fabrics than from any other fiber, and these products range in fineness from the gossamer web to the heavy plush used for winter garments. Ingenious looms have been invented by American and French operators, as well as special attachments for weaving intricate patterns, which are now produced at moderate cost.

The manufacture of sewing silk is really a continuation of the process of throwing. It is made by continuing to double and twist the threads together, until a thread of the desired size and strength is obtained. This branch of the silk industry is confined to the United States, and it has become of considerable importance.

The manufacture of waste silk is also an important industry. Only about seven-tenths of the silk on a cocoon can be wound onto the reel. The remainder, together with the coarse fiber taken from the outside of the cocoon and the silk obtained from defective cocoons and those from which the moths have been allowed to escape, constitute the waste. This is subjected to a number of processes, such as washing, combing and spinning, until it forms the spun silk of commerce, which is used for silk yarn and for wool in some silk fabrics.

Production. The silk industry seems to have originated in China, and the Chinese were the first to make known the value and usefulness of the fiber produced by the silkworm. The leading countries in the production of raw silk are China, Japan, Italy and France, while the leading countries in its manufacture, in the order of their importance, are the United States and France. The leading American states in silk manufacture are New Jersey, Pennsylvania, New York, Connecticut and Massachusetts. Paterson, N. J., is the chief center of the industry. The world output of silk averages 100,000,000 pounds a year. The color plate shows the various stages of evolution of the silkworm and silkworm moth.

SILK, ARTIFICIAL, any fine fiber having the appearance of silk and prepared to be similarly used. Both cotton and wood pulp are chemically treated to produce a "silky" fiber, which is much cheaper than silk and for certain purposes is a suitable substitute for it. After the cotton is carded it is steeped in a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acid,

and is then dissolved in a mixture of ether and alcohol. The product is then passed between steel rollers, which squeeze it through tiny tubes. From these it passes into a bath of nitric acid and water. The resulting fibers are wound on reels, then are dried, washed, spun and dyed. The trade name for some varieties is Rayon.

SILKWORM. See **SILK**.

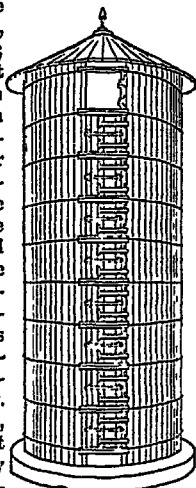
SILKWORM GUT, a material obtained from silkworms and used for the hook end of fishlines. When the silkworm grubs are ready to spin they are soaked in strong vinegar and the silky substance is then drawn from the dead worms and submitted to a special process. About 25,000 threads are required to produce a pound of gut. The gut is valued for its tenacity and invisibility in the water.

SILLOAM, a pool situated at the southern end of the eastern hill of Jerusalem, the water of which is supplied by the Virgin's Spring and is brought to the pool at the entrance to the Tyropoeon valley by a tunnel over 1,700 feet in length. At the Siloam end of this tunnel an important inscription was found in the wall in 1880, which is generally assigned to Hezekiah. He is said to have "made the pool and the conduit, and brought water into the city" (II Kings XX, 20). However, other authorities date the inscription back to 200 B. C.

SILO AND SILAGE. A *silo* is a structure in which green crops are stored and preserved in succulent condition for winter feed for stock; *silage*, or *ensilage*, is the name of the fodder stored in the silo. The silo was introduced into America from Europe in 1875 and has rapidly gained favor. While a silo may be square or rectangular, the cylindrical form is found to be the most economical and best adapted to the preservation of the silage. The entire structure must be as nearly air tight as possible, since the presence of air causes decomposition; the inside walls must be perpendicular and smooth to permit uniform settling of the inclosed mass of silage; and this must be of considerable depth so that there will be sufficient pressure to keep the mass compact. Consequently the height should be between twenty-five and thirty feet, while the diameter may vary according to the needs of the farmer constructing it. Wood has been the material generally used in building silos but concrete is rapidly winning favor, as it is cheap, and furnishes an

air-tight, water-proof and vermin-proof structure.

A cylindrical silo 20 feet in diameter and 20 feet high will contain 105 tons of silage and one of the same diameter 25 feet high, will contain 143 tons; while a silo 25 feet high and 25 feet in diameter will contain 224 tons. These figures enable a farmer to judge quite accurately as to the size of a silo which he wishes to build, and the work should be done by one experienced in constructing buildings of this sort. All things being equal, the cylindrical silo is the best. It contains no angles, it is more easily kept tight and is easily cleaned when emptied. Moreover, the cylindrical silo is the strongest form for a structure of this sort, and it is not easily pressed out of shape by the pressure from within



In locating the silo on dairy farms the farmer should carefully consider two things: first, convenience in handling the silage, which must be done at least twice a day; and secondly, the position of the silo with reference to the stable, so that odors arising from it will not penetrate the stable, at least during milking time, since milk readily absorbs odors of this sort. The silo should be as near the stable as possible without danger of contaminating the milk. If the cows are fed after milking time and the stable is thoroughly aired before milking time, there is but little danger from these odors.

The bottom of the silo should be cement or plank, but cement is preferable, since a plank bottom causes a loss of five or six inches of the silage next to it. The sides should be airtight, but the roof should provide ample ventilation. With these points in view, the farmer desiring to construct a silo knows about what to require of the builders. The illustration here given is of a very satisfactory silo.

The silo combines the advantages of storing a large amount of feed in a small space and of keeping it in its natural state until used. Moreover, by this means of storage, the farmer can raise upon a few acres fodder, which, if raised under ordinary conditions, would require many times the acreage, and, in addition to this, the silage is much better adapted to the purpose of feeding milk cows than any other sort of dairy food.

Silage, or Ensilage. Various crops are suitable for silage, but experiment has shown that corn is the most desirable. Alfalfa and clover are also used to good advantage. Experiments have shown that the best results are obtained from corn silage when the crop is cut just as the ears are beginning to glaze. As the corn is cut in the field, it is hauled to the ensilage cutter, which cuts it into pieces about an inch in length, using the stalks and ears without separation. As the cut silage leaves the machine, it is carried by an endless belt containing buckets, or by a blower, to the silo. If the plant is dry it should be thoroughly wet after leaving the cutter, before it is packed. Otherwise it soon becomes mildewed. In case of dry crops it is the practice to run a stream of water over the silage as it leaves the cutter. The water tends to make the mass in the silo air tight, and thus prevent fermentation and decay.

When the silo is filled, the ensilage should be covered by some preparation which will exclude the air. Local conditions determine what can be used to the best advantage. The doors in the side of the silo should, of course, be kept closed until the contents have been lowered to each succeeding door. Silage protected from the air will be kept fresh and succulent through the winter, and it is practically as nourishing and healthful as the grass obtained in the average pasture.

SILURIAN PERIOD, a division of geologic time, the third of the Paleozoic Era, following the Ordovician Period, and preceding the Devonian. It is named for the Silures, an ancient people of Britain, where the rocks were first studied. The formations are of wide extent and are found in all the continents. The rocks are largely limestones and sandstones and have been divided into a number of series and stages with local names. In the United States the most noted of these are the Niagara, the Onondaga and the Lower Helderberg. The formations of this system make up the greater part of the

Appalachian Mountains and the sides of the celebrated Delaware Water Gap, and extend southward as far as Tennessee. The gypsum and salt beds of New York and the iron ore along the Appalachian Mountains belong to these formations. See DEVONIAN PERIOD; PALEOZOIC ERA; GEOLOGY.



In a Silver Mine

SILVER, a precious metal, below gold and platinum in value. Silver appears to have been known almost, if not quite, as early as gold. It was used as money in the time of Abraham, 2000 B. C. The foundations of the Hebrew Tabernacle were of silver, and the metal is mentioned among the offerings presented at the completion of that sacred edifice.

Properties. Pure silver is of a fine white color. It is softer than copper but harder than gold, and is about ten and one-half times as heavy as water. Its chemical symbol is *Ag*, which stands for *argentum*, the Latin name for silver. It is next in malleability to gold, having been beaten into leaves only $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch in thickness. It may be drawn out into a wire much finer than a human hair. It excels all other metals as a conductor of electricity, and is second only to gold as a conductor of heat. Silver melts when heated red hot, or at 1761° F., and it may be boiled and volatilized by very strong and long-continued heat. When in a molten state it absorbs twenty-two times its volume of oxygen, which it gives off on cooling. If it cools so quickly that a crust forms on the surface before the gas escapes, bubbles of gas explode and break through the crust. This is called *spitting*.

Compounds. Silver forms a number of compounds, several of which are extensively used in the arts. *Oxide of silver* is produced by dissolving silver in a solution of nitric acid and precipitating with an alkali. The compound called *horn silver* or *chloride of silver* is obtained by dissolving silver in nitric acid and mixing the solution with a solution of common salt. When exposed to the light it turns to a blackish color, hence its great use in photography. *Bromide of silver* is the most sensitive to light of all

known solids. It is used for coating the "dry plates" employed in photography. When silver is long exposed to the air, it acquires a covering of a violet color, which deprives it of its luster; this coating is sulphide of silver.

Of the combinations of acid and silver, the most important is *nitrate of silver*, obtained by dissolving silver in nitric acid. If the silver and acid are pure, the solution of silver nitrate is colorless, very heavy and caustic; it stains the skin and all animal substances an indelible black; after evaporation it deposits, on cooling, transparent crystals of nitrate of silver.

Alloys. Silver readily forms alloys with iron, tin, lead, copper and mercury. Pure silver is too soft for most uses and is alloyed with copper. In the United States 900 parts silver to 100 parts copper form the standard alloy for the silver coin. In Great Britain and its colonies the proportions for sterling silver are 925 parts silver to seventy-five parts copper. In countries of the Latin Union the ratio is 835 parts silver to 165 parts copper. The value of silver varies, according to condition of supply and demand; hence gold is preferred as the standard in measuring the value of precious metals.

Uses. The most extensive uses of silver are for coinage, and the manufacture of table ware and decorative articles. It is also used for silvering mirrors, and its compounds are employed in photography, in medicine and for other minor purposes.

Ores. There are five important silver ores, namely, native silver, vitreous silver, or silver glance, black silver, red silver and horn silver. Native silver occurs principally in veins, traversing gneiss, clay slate and other paleozoic rocks, but not usually in great quantity. It often forms a natural alloy with gold. Vitreous silver presents itself in various shapes and is of a blackish lead-gray color, with a metallic luster. It is malleable, about as hard as gypsum, and is subject to tarnish.

Black silver generally occurs in granular masses, of an iron-black color. It is about as hard as gypsum and presents a smooth surface when cut with a knife. This mineral is a composition of silver with antimony and sulphur and traces of iron, copper and arsenic. It is found in veins, along with other ores of silver, and is a valuable ore for the extraction of silver.

Red silver is found in crystals and often in masses, in grains and even as a fine powder. It is a double sulphide of silver and antimony, containing, on an average, sixty per cent of silver. It occurs in veins with other silver ores, and with galena and blende. Horn silver, or silver chloride, occurs in crystals and also in crusts and granular masses. It contains about seventy-six per cent of silver. It is found in the upper parts of veins in clay slate and also in beds with other silver ores or with iron ore. The above are the ores of silver from which silver is chiefly extracted; but large quantities are obtained from ores of lead and copper, which are worked primarily for these metals.

Reduction of Ore. Silver is obtained from its various ores by smelting, amalgamation and chemical processes which are long and complex. It is most easily separated from lead ore, since the lead melts at a much lower temperature and can be drawn off, leaving the silver free. Before the ore is treated by any of the other processes it is ground to a powder in stamp mills, and the pulverized ore is thoroughly washed in running water, while passing over vibrating tables. The particles containing metal are heavier than the others and sink into grooves, while the light particles are carried away by the water. This process forms what is called *concentrate*, from which the metals are extracted. See **METALLURGY**.

Production. Nearly every part of the world produces silver in greater or less abundance, and next to gold it has been sought for centuries by adventurers who hoped by good fortune to acquire riches speedily. Leading all others in this feverish quest were the Spaniards. Among all countries Mexico has long been foremost in silver production, it is credited with forty per cent of the world's output, or more than 80 million troy ounces yearly. The silver mines there were worked before the Spanish Conquest (1521), and yet appear to be inexhaustible. The United States is second, with a yield slightly less than half that of Mexico. Peru is third in world production, with about two-thirds of the yield of the United States, and Canada is fourth, with about 16,000,000 ounces each year. Among the states of the American Union, Utah is usually first in production, Idaho second, Montana and Arizona often exchange third-place honors, and Nevada is fifth. Silver ore, chiefly silver-bearing

galena, has also been found in great quantities in the Barrier Ranges of New South Wales. Some of the mining concerns here are the largest in the world. Considerable silver is also produced in Europe.

In 1934, by authority of Congress, the President of the United States ordered all silver bullion in private ownership to be sold to the Federal Treasury. The Treasury was directed to issue silver certificates in amount not less than the cost of silver purchased. It was hoped thus to raise the price of silver.

SIMCOE, JOHN GRAVES (1752-1806), an English general and the first governor of Upper Canada, born in Northamptonshire, England, and educated at Merton College, Oxford. He came to New England during the Revolutionary War, commanding the Queen's Rangers. He took an active part in the war and surrendered with Cornwallis at Yorktown in 1781. He served as governor of Upper Canada



JOHN GRAVES
SIMCOE

in 1791-1794; then became governor of Santo Domingo in 1796-1797, and in 1806 was appointed commander in chief of India. He wrote a *History of the Operations of a Partisan Corps Called the Queen's Rangers*. London, Ont., was founded by him, and Lake Simcoe and the town of Simcoe were named in his honor.

SIMILE, *sim'lee*, a figure of speech in which some form of resemblance between two objects essentially different is designated by means of some definite word, either *as*, *like* or *so*. It is this specific statement of comparison which distinguishes simile from metaphor, wherein the likeness is implied (see **FIGURES OF SPEECH**). The following are examples of simile:

Life, **LIKE** A DOME of many coloured glass,
Stains the white radiance of Eternity

As idle **AS** A PAINTED SHIP upon a painted ocean
It cracked and growled and roared and howled

LIKE RUCLES in the sun

My life is **LIKE** A STROLL upon the beach

SIMONIDES, *si mon' dees* (556-468 B. C.), a Greek lyric poet and one of the most

versatile men of antiquity. He visited Athens, and after the death of Hipparchus, who had treated him very generously, he proceeded to Thessaly, where he obtained the patronage of powerful families. He later returned to Athens, where in competition with Aeschylus he was awarded the prize for his elegy on the warriors who fell at Marathon. When eighty years of age Simonides was victorious in another celebrated poetical contest, his fifty-sixth victory of this nature. Shortly after this he was invited to the court of Hiero, at Syracuse, where he remained till his death. Simonides excelled in his triumphal odes and elegies, which were polished and rhetorical, and gave him rank with Pindar, his contemporary and rival. See PINDAR.

SIMON PETER. See PETER.

SIMOOM', or **SIMOON'**, a hot, dry wind that blows over the Sahara and Arabian deserts, carrying great clouds of dust. It is caused by the intense heat of the sandy plains. The air, heated by contact with the noonday burning sand, ascends, and the inflow of colder air from all sides forms a whirlwind, or miniature cyclone. Its intense, dry, parching heat, combined with the cloud of dust and sand which it carries with it, makes this wind very destructive to both vegetable and animal life. Caravans cannot proceed through it. When suddenly overtaken by one of these sandstorms travelers, to escape suffocation, lie down and cover their heads with blankets, and camels bury their noses in the sand. The simoon may last a few minutes or it may continue for days.

SIMPLON, a mountain pass of Switzerland near the frontier of Piedmont, Italy, over which the famous Simplon road, one of the greatest engineering feats of modern times, was constructed by Napoleon in 1800-1806. This pass, which is one of the most important routes across the Alps, is about thirty feet broad and forty-two miles long, and is carried over 611 bridges and through numerous great tunnels.

The Simplon Tunnel, a railway tunnel through the Alps at this point, was commenced in 1898 and completed in 1906. It is the longest railway tunnel in the world, consisting of two tubes, each having a single track. The length is over twelve miles.

SIMPSON, **SIR JAMES YOUNG** (1811-1870), a Scotch physician, the most eminent medical practitioner of his day and the discoverer of the anesthetic properties of

chloroform. He was born at Bathgate, and was educated at the University of Edinburgh. For his discovery of chloroform anesthesia and its introduction at childbirth and his invention of a means of arresting the loss of blood in hemorrhage, he received honors from numerous scientific societies in America and Europe. He was created a baronet in 1867. See ANESTHETIC; CHLOROFORM.

SIMS, **WILLIAM SOWDEN** (1858-), an American naval commander, promoted to the rank of vice-admiral in 1917, after America entered the World War. He was born at Port Hope, Ontario, and was educated for the sea at the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, from which he was graduated in 1880. Between 1897 and 1900 Sims served as naval attaché to the American embassies at the capitals of France and Russia, and during Roosevelt's administrations was inspector of target practice at the Bureau of Navigation. Following this he was commander of the *Minnesota*, a member of the Naval War College, commander of the Atlantic torpedo flotilla, president of the Naval War College, and commandant of the Second Naval District. In August, 1916, he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral. After America entered the World War he was made a vice-admiral and placed in charge of the American squadron in European waters, in rank with his associate allied commanders. He was retired in 1922. In 1921 he published *Our Victory at Sea*.

SINAI, *s'na*, or *s'na* *t*, a mountain in Arabia, at the base of which Israel encamped and from the summit of which Moses is supposed to have received the Ten Commandments. It is one of three peaks of the mountain range on the peninsula of Sinai, which projects into the Red Sea, between the gulfs of Suez and Akabah. In literature the word Sinai is used figuratively to symbolize the legal side of God's treatment of men.

SINCLAIR, **UPTON** [BEALL] (1878-), an American author of widely read fiction and books of protest against economic and political conditions that his Socialist mind could not endorse, was born in Baltimore, Md., and was graduated from the College of the City of New York in 1897, after which he was a special student for four years at Columbia University. While in government employ on a commission that investigated operations in the Chicago stockyards, he gathered material for *The Jungle*, his first

book to give him prominence. Other volumes followed at the rate of more than one each year to a number exceeding forty. Most notable of these are *King Midas*, *The Money Changers*, *King Coal*, *The Brass Check*, *Damaged Goods*, *The Goose-Step*, *Oil*, *Roman Holiday*, *The Wet Parade*, *American Outpost*, *The Way Out*, *The Cry for Justice* and *The Goslings*.

Sinclair was the founder of an ill-fated Socialist colony in New Jersey and of the American Civil Liberties Union in California. Several times he entered the political arena as a Socialist. In 1918, after he became a resident of California, he was a candidate for Congress, in 1922 he sought the nomination for United States Senator, and in 1926 was defeated for the nomination for governor. In 1934 he succeeded in winning the Democratic nomination for that office, and he conducted an amazing but unsuccessful campaign, with the slogan, "End Poverty In California" (popularly known as the EPIC issue).

SINDING, *sin'ding*, CHRISTIAN (1856-), a Norwegian musical composer and teacher, educated in Germany, and Austria. His compositions suggest the spirit of the Northlands and are characterized by charm of melody and excellence of construction. His principal works include a pianoforte quartet and quintet, three violin sonatas, two symphonies and the *Rondo Infinito* for the orchestra; his opera *Der heilige Berg* was produced in Berlin in 1910.

SINGAPORE, a British colony, forming one of the Straits Settlements and consisting chiefly of the island and city of Singapore, with a few smaller islands. The principal island is about twenty-seven miles long and fourteen miles wide and has an area of 217 square miles. Its location gives it a hot climate throughout the year, though it is not unhealthful. The chief interest centers in the city of Singapore. The chief public buildings consist of the Cathedral of Saint Andrew's, the townhall, the courthouse and the Roman Catholic Cathedral. It has one of the finest botanical gardens in the world. Singapore is the meeting point of numerous important ocean routes. The British government is making the island a great naval base. Population, 1934, estimate, 525,228, of whom over sixty per cent were Chinese.

SING'ING, the art of making music with the human voice; also the music thus pro-

duced. The mechanism by which this music is made consists of the lungs, which supply the air; the muscles of the diaphragm, or chest, which force the air through the throat, and the vocal chords of the throat, whose vibrations produce the sound. Difference in pitch of voice is due to the length of the vocal chords; difference in quality is due to the differences in the shape of the cavities of the mouth and nose and to the different use of the muscles of the larynx. The compass of the human voice is from about C below the bass clef to F above the treble, though no single voice has this compass, the average being about twelve to fifteen tones, and the greatest, slightly over three octaves. The total range of the voice is divided into four parts, the *soprano*, including the highest tones, beginning at about E on the treble clef; the *alto*, or *contralto*, including those from about C on the bass clef to C on the treble clef, the *tenor*, including the range of the contralto, but extending somewhat lower, and the *bass*, including all the lower notes, beginning at about C above the bass clef and extending downward. See MUSIC.

SINGLE TAX, the name given by common consent to the economic reform which proposes the abolition of all taxes on personal property and the raising of public revenues, local, state and national, by a single tax on land values, irrespective of improvements, this tax eventually to become equal to the annual rental value of the land. The theory of the single tax is based upon Ricardo's "law of rent," which, briefly, is this: "The economic rent of a given piece of land depends upon (or is determined by) the excess of its product over that which can be obtained with an equivalent effort from the least productive land in cultivation." By taking this economic rent (that is, the excess of product of a particular piece of land, over that which can be obtained from the least productive land in use—or at the so-called "margin of cultivation") for public purposes (taxes), those who are now holding the lands without using them, in order to secure in the future a higher value, would no longer be able to do so with profit, since the benefit which they have been receiving would now be confiscated to the State. Thus, vast areas of land would be thrown open to practically free employment; the opportunities for labor would be nearly equal, and the reward to labor would be approximately the

whole product, except what would be taken for interest on the capital invested.

In proof of their assertions, single taxers point to statistics. For instance, the unimproved land within the limits of the city of Chicago constitutes a large part of the total area and would furnish employment for thousands of persons. They justify the confiscation of land values (for the taking of the whole rental value would amount to the confiscation of the land), partly on the basis that this value is created by the community and cannot be rightfully monopolized by individuals. Furthermore, they contend that private ownership of land must eventually reduce the majority of mankind virtually to a condition of slavery; for wealth can be produced only by the application of labor to land (that is, to all natural agencies, including earth, air, water); therefore, either the owner of the labor (man) or the owner of the opportunity to labor (land) can control the laborer and can make such terms with him as he pleases. This condition is brought constantly nearer by the withholding from use of large tracts of land, while the growth of population and other conditions constantly increase the competition of laborers for employment, that is, for the right to use the land. Believing as they do that the original act of reducing land to private ownership was wrong and worked an injustice, not only upon those from whom the land was taken, but upon all who came after, they believe the State has a perfect right to reverse this step and retake for the community, by taxation, the value of land, without compensating the present owners.

The single-tax theory has gained many adherents, especially in England and the United States, during the last quarter of a century, chiefly through the propaganda of Henry George, an American economist who first thoroughly elucidated the principles of the theory, though the idea had been before developed in a crude way by French economists. George's first great work on the subject was *Progress and Poverty*. It immediately became popular and has been translated into all the languages of the civilized world (see GEORGE, HENRY). But the theory has never been given a practical test, though it has been partially applied in New Zealand and in small divisions of other countries. At Fairhope, Ala., is a small colony of single taxers who are attempting to work out their

principles in practical life. Their efforts have been attended with some success. Some of the important demands of the single taxers are being accepted and incorporated in the laws of several of the states, especially the abolition of the tax on personal property, the reform being urged in many instances on the ground that this form of property is so easily concealed that persons of small means pay vastly more, in proportion to their ability, than those of wealth, and, further, that the methods of assessment place a premium upon perjury and corruption.

The main objections that are urged to the single tax are the following: (1) That it would relieve a large class of persons from support of the government; (2) that the tax would be inelastic; (3) even though the justice of the principle of the single tax be granted, for the sake of argument, the fact that private ownership of land has been recognized for centuries and has led to the development of many interwoven interests, would make it inexpedient for the community to recover possession of the land by the means proposed. See TAX; RENT.

SING SING, N. Y. See OSSINGTON.

SINN FEIN, *sin fayn*, a society of Irish nationalists with the one aim to overthrow British rule and make Ireland an independent state. In the ancient Gaelic tongue of Ireland, *Sinn Fein* meant *ourselves alone*. Its first use politically was as the name of a patriotic newspaper, the readers of which furnished the nucleus of the society. With the growth of the society, which is composed largely of leading Irish thinkers, the *Sinn Fein* has become in recent years a "movement." In April, 1916, an armed rebellion of Sinn Feiners broke out in Dublin, but was put down by the British, and Sir Roger Casement and other leaders were executed. The movement did not perish, however. On the contrary, the party gained such strength that it won about seventy seats in the Parliamentary election in December, 1918. The elected delegates refused to take their places in the Parliament at London, but gave all their energies to setting up an independent republic with a Parliament at Dublin. See IRELAND, subhead *History*.

SIOUAN, *soo'an*, INDIANS, those related Indian tribes who occupied the land of the upper Mississippi and Missouri valleys, far into Canada, and included detached tribes east of the Mississippi. Among Siouan

tribes are the Dakota, or Sioux, the Omaha, the Winnebago, the Assiniboin, the Osage and the Quapaw. Some of the tribes were bitterly hostile to the whites, and the fierce and warlike temperament of such tribes as Dakotas was the source of considerable trouble to the United States government for many years.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

Assiniboin	Quapaw	Sitting Bull
Osage	Sioux	Winnebago

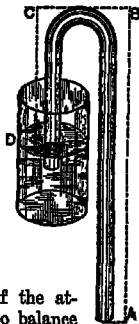
SIOUX, *soo*, or **DAKOTA**, the largest tribe of Indians dwelling west of the Mississippi, and the most troublesome of all the tribes belonging to the Siouan group. Originally they occupied the country between the Arkansas River and the vicinity of Lake Winnipeg and west almost to the Rocky Mountains. Because the United States government failed to carry out certain agreements made with them, they went on the war-path in 1862 and killed nearly 1,000 settlers. Another uprising in 1876 caused the death of General Custer and all his men, in the battle of the Little Big Horn. Eventually the Sioux were subdued and retired to their reservations in the Northwest. They now number about 24,500, and are intelligent and progressive. See **SITTING BULL**.

SIOUX CITY, Iowa, the second city in size in the state and the county seat of Woodbury County, is located on the Missouri River, at the mouth of the Big Sioux River, 156 miles northwest of Des Moines. It is on the Illinois Central, the Chicago & North Western, the Chicago, Saint Paul, Minneapolis & Omaha, the Great Northern, the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific, the Missouri Pacific, and the Union Pacific railroads. There is an airport. The city is the sixth largest live stock market in the United States, having large meat packing plants and stockyards. It has wholesale and jobbing houses and 150 factories, including railroad repair shops, brick and tile works, planing mills, and other industrial establishments. Two bridges cross the Missouri River, one, a combination bridge affording facilities for railroads, street cars, vehicles and foot passengers. Sioux City is the seat of Morningside College, Trinity College, and Briar Cliff College (for girls), a Federal building, a city hall, and a Carnegie Library. Its largest park is Stone Park, 800 acres. It has a Y. M. C. A. building and an auditorium seating

3,000. A \$750,000 courthouse graces the city. Sioux City was first incorporated in 1857, became a city of the first class in 1886, and is now governed on the mayor-council plan. Population, 1920, 71,227; in 1930, 79,183, a gain of 11 per cent.

SIOUX FALLS, S. D., the county seat of Minnehaha County, about ninety miles north of Sioux City, Iowa, and eight miles from the Iowa State line, on the Big Sioux River and on the Great Northern, the Illinois Central, the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific, and the Chicago & North Western railroads. There is an airport. The river has a series of falls, descending about 100 feet in half a mile and furnishing extensive water power. The city contains a large packing plant, a biscuit factory, brickyards and extensive granite quarries, from which are taken a beautiful pink jasper building stone. It has large wholesale houses, and is the center of a valuable trade. The educational institutions include the Sioux Falls College, All Saints School, Augustana College, a library, and a museum. The city is the seat of an orphans' home, a school for the deaf, and the state penitentiary. It has a Federal building. There are five parks and a Coliseum. Sioux Falls was chartered as a city in 1883. It adopted the commission form of government in 1909. Population, 1920, 25,202; in 1930, 33,362, a gain of 32 per cent.

SIPHON, *si'fahn*, a tube with one curved end, shaped like an inverted U, used to convey a liquid from a higher to a lower level. The illustration shows the principle upon which the siphon works. If all the air is exhausted from the tube and the two ends are placed in liquid, the pressure of the atmospheric air on the surface at *D* will force the liquid up into the tube to the level *CB* and cause it to flow into the arm *BA*. A liquid would not flow through a siphon if the highest point in the tube were thirty-three feet above the level *D*, because the pressure of the atmosphere is not sufficient to balance its weight at higher levels. The principle of the siphon is employed in devices for conveying water over slight elevations, and in emptying casks and other vessels.



SIR, a title formerly meaning *master*, *lord* or *sovereign*. It is a contraction of *sire* formerly applied to sovereigns, but is now most frequently applied to those upon whom the British government wishes to confer distinction because of their position in the nobility, or because they have rendered some distinguished service to mankind or to the British government. Thus, Henry Bessemer, the inventor of the process of making Bessemer steel, was given the title of *Sir*. Since *Sir* was the distinguishing title of knighthood in the Middle Ages, one upon whom the title is conferred is said to be knighted. See **CHIVALRY**.

SIREN, an instrument for the production of continuous sounds, universally employed as a pre-arranged signal to give warning of present or approaching danger or casualty. Very large sirens are used for fog signals at lighthouse stations, steam being employed instead of air, with a trumpet-shaped horn to direct the sound. The siren is also used for measuring the number of sound waves, or vibrations, per second, which produce a note of given pitch. In its original form it consists of a disk, with a circular row of oblique holes, revolving close to the top plate of a wind chest, perforated with corresponding holes, sloping in the opposite direction, so that the jets of air from the latter, passing through the former, keep the disk in motion. These jets of air also produce a note, corresponding to the rapidity with which the plate is revolved or the frequency with which the holes in the plate coincide with those in the chest. The number of coincidences or vibrations in a given time is shown by indices connected with the axis of the disk.

SIRENS, in Greek mythology, the name of several sea nymphs, who by their singing enticed sailors to their island, near the Sicilian coast, and then killed them by starvation. Warned of the danger, when Ulysses approached their island, he stopped the ears of his companions with wax, bound himself to the mast, and thus escaped. The sirens then threw themselves into the sea, where they became formidable rocks. Another version is that they hurled themselves into the sea when vanquished in music by Orpheus.

SIRIUS, *seer'ius*, the dog star, the brightest star in the heavens, situated in the constellation Canis Major, or the Great Dog. It is estimated to have more than thirteen times the sun's magnitude. A companion

star to Sirius was discovered in 1862 which gives out one ten-thousandth part of the light of Sirius.

SIROCCO, *sirok'o*, the Italian name for a hot wind, but properly applied to any warm wind of sufficient duration to produce a general climatic change. Siroccos are common over the southern portion of the United States and the countries bordering the Mediterranean in the north, being especially the scourge of Sicily, although the term particularly refers to the warm wind of the Sahara. The sirocco here should be distinguished from the simoom which is much more violent, though both winds produce dust storms.

SISAL, *sis sahl'*, or *sis'at*, or *sis'all*, a tall tropical plant, the swordlike leaves of which yield a valuable fiber used for the making of binding twine, coarse cloth, hammocks, bags, etc. Sisal is native to Yucatan, Mexico, and is also cultivated in limited quantity in Florida, the Bahamas, the West Indies, and parts of Central America. Progreso, the chief port of Yucatan, exports to the United States annually 200,000,000 pounds of this fiber.

Sisal is grown upon stony ground, and its leaves are from two to three feet long. The pulp is cleaned from each side of the leaf and the remaining fiber is then washed and sun-dried.

SISTERS OF CHARITY. See **CHARITY**, **SISTERS OF**.

SISTERS OF MERCY. See **MERCY**, **SISTERS OF**.

SISTINE, *sis'tin*, or *sis teen'*, **CHAPEL**, the private chapel of the Pope in the Vatican, built for Sixtus IV, in 1473, by Giovanni de' Dolci, a Florentine architect. The screen separating the congregation from the section reserved for the Pope and cardinals is one of the foremost pieces of marble decoration of the early Renaissance period. The floor mosaics and frescoes on the walls and ceiling are equally famous. The walls are a museum of works of leading Tuscan and Umbrian painters of the later fifteenth century, with masterpieces of Botticelli, Ghirlandaio, Perugino and many others. Among the ceiling frescoes are Michelangelo's *Creation*, *History of Noah*, and the celebrated *Prophets and Sibyls*. The entire altar wall is covered by his *Last Judgment*, the largest fresco in the world (see **MICHELANGELO**).

Most of the functions at which the Pope personally participates take place in the

Sistine Chapel. The Papal elections are also held there

SISTINE MADONNA. See RAPHAEL; MADONNA; PAINTING

SISYPHUS, *sis'i fus*, a mythical king of Corinth, who promoted navigation and commerce, and who was so crafty that he even deceived the gods. For his wickedness he was punished in the lower world by being obliged to roll a heavy stone to the top of a hill which always rolled down again, thus rendering his task eternal.

SITKA, ALASKA, its former capital, is situated on the west coast of Baranof Island, 1,130 miles north of Seattle and 160 miles southwest of Juneau. The town has a picturesque site, near a number of mountain peaks covered with perpetual snow. The climate is mild, considering the latitude. The chief buildings are the Greek church, begun in 1816; a church connected with the Presbyterian mission, and the school buildings of the Russian-Greek church, the United States government and the Presbyterian industrial training school. Other institutions of importance are the barracks, an agricultural experiment station, the governor's residence, the United States land office and a marine hospital. The chief industries are mining, lumbering and salmon canning. Sitka was the old Russian capital of Alaska and until 1906 was the seat of government for the territory under the United States; in that year the capital was transferred to Juneau. Population, 1930, 1,056.

SITTING BULL (1837-1890), a famous chief of the Sioux tribe of North American Indians, born at Willow Creek, Dakota. From the very first he showed bitter hostility to the white settlers in the Northwest, and was conspicuous in many attacks upon them. At the Battle of Mussel Shell, in the Yellowstone region, in 1868, his forces were defeated, and from this time until 1876 he fought friendly Indians and raided Montana settlements. In 1876 a campaign was undertaken against him, during which General Custer and his force were massacred. Later he escaped to Canada, but on promise of pardon he surrendered to General Miles, in 1881. He again instigated rebellion among the Indians and was killed while resisting a government order for his arrest.

SIUT, or SIOUT, *se oot'* (also written ASSUT), the chief town of Upper Egypt and the capital of the Province of Siut, situated

on the west bank of the Nile, 248 miles south of Cairo, and on the Nile Valley Railroad. It is the official seat of residence of the governor of Upper Egypt. It is a well-built town and trade center. It has manufacturing industries of considerable value and is noted for its red and black pottery and pipe bowls. A large dam has been constructed across the Nile at this point, to regulate the flow of water for irrigation purposes. Near the city are a number of ancient tombs, cut in the rocks. Population, about 42,750.

SIVA, *se'va*, the name of the third of the three great Hindu deities (Brahma, Vishnu and Siva), variously designated as the destroyer and the creator, or regenerator. He is frequently represented with five faces and from two to ten hands; a third eye is in the middle of his forehead. He wears a necklace of human skulls and carries a trident supported by a skull. He has been known by almost a thousand names. See BRAHMA; VISHNU.

SIX NATIONS, THE See FIVE NATIONS
SIXTUS, the name of five Popes, of whom Sixtus IV and Sixtus V were the most noted.

Sixtus IV, who was Pope from 1471 to 1484, was a patron of art and learning. Among the works commemorating his reign are the Ponte Sisto and the famous Sistine Chapel of the Vatican.

Sixtus V was Pope from 1585 to 1590. As Pope he actively pursued criminals and purged Italy of bandits and mendicants. An able financier, he replenished the Papal treasury, which at his accession he had found exhausted, and left at his death three million dollars available to his successor. He also greatly enriched the Vatican library, collecting from the monasteries countless valuable manuscripts and placing them in the hands of competent translators. He built new additions to the library and had the arrangement of books so perfected that it has been since that time the admiration of all students who visit Rome. He founded the Vatican Press and had printed the works of Gregory the Great, Saint Bonaventure and other learned divines, also, the Septuagint and the Vulgate, published in 1590. The Scala Santa, by which, according to tradition, Christ ascended to the hall of Pilate at Jerusalem, was raised by Sixtus's direction. In his brief reign, this pope accomplished more for Rome and the Catholic Church than any of his predecessors in a like period.

SKAGERRAK, *skah'ger rak*, a broad arm of the North Sea, which washes Norway on the north, Jutland on the south and Sweden on the east, where it communicates with the Cattegat (which see). Its length is about

150 miles; its breadth, eighty miles. Its depth varies from thirty to more than 200 fathoms. There are several good harbors on the Norwegian and Swedish coasts. In the Skagerrak, in 1916, was fought a great battle between the British and German fleets (see WORLD WAR).

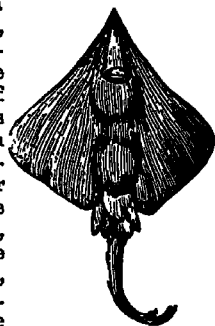
SKAGWAY, *skag'way*, ALASKA, a subport of entry in the southern district of Alaska, situated on Lynn Canal. It is an important terminus for railroad and steamship lines and is a distributing point of supplies to the interior; through it also pass supplies to and from the Canadian Klondike. It has a public library, three hospitals and a United States government building. Population, 1930, about 500.

SKALDS, or **SCALDS**, *skahldz*, or *skawldz*, poets and historians of the Scandinavian races who flourished from the ninth to the latter half of the thirteenth century. They lived at the courts of princes and sang the praises of their gods and celebrated the exploits of their national heroes. A list of over two hundred of the most distinguished skalds is preserved in the Icelandic language.

SKAT, *skaht*, a game of cards, played with a euchre deck by three, four or five persons, for sixty-one points. The cards in the tricks taken count as follows: ace, eleven; ten spot, ten; king, four; queen, three; knave, two. The four knaves, which are called *matadors*, are the highest trumps and rank in order of suits, clubs, spades, hearts and diamonds. Only three take part in active play at each deal. Five cards are dealt to each of the players. The next two cards are laid face down on the table, then five more are dealt to each of the same players. The two which are laid face down on the table are called the *skat*. Suit must be followed if possible; if not, any card may be played. By means of bidding and passing the bid, in which the rank of the suits is considered, the one who is to lead is selected. The counting is complicated, and the method should be studied from a manual. The game was invented in 1817 in Altenburg and is very popular among Germans. It is played to a considerable extent in the United States, but its difficulty has prevented it from becoming more generally popular.

SKATE, a broad, flat-bodied fish belonging to the ray family, usually found on sandy bottoms near the shore. The chief portion of the body is made up of the expanded pec-

toral fins, which are concealed under the skin. The tail is long and slender; the snout is pointed, with a prominent ridge, or keel. The common skate of the Atlantic coast of North America is a foot or two in length; the *barn-door skate* is four feet long; and the *California skate*, the largest of the American species, is six feet long. Most species are edible.



SKATE

SKATES AND SKATING. A skate consists of a steel blade affixed to a wooden or metal base and fastened to the shoe by means of straps, clamps or screws.

The *club skate*, with its rocker-shaped blade, is entirely of metal, and is clamped on the foot; the *Hudson River*, or *Donoghue skate* is straight-bladed, with wooden top and straps; the *Norwegian skate*, ranking as the best, has a blade similar to the Hudson River skate, but is very light in weight and is screwed to the sole of a special skating shoe.

Skating. Skating seems to have been a sport of great antiquity, mention being made of it in the Edda. In Holland, from time immemorial, skates have been used by all classes of people upon the canals and rivers, because of their facility of locomotion. In the United States and Canada few outdoor sports draw such large crowds as skating and most of the northern cities make provision at public expense for skating on the lagoons in the public parks. Local and municipal contests are held for championships. Frequently contests have been held between European, Canadian and American champions.

Ice Hockey. See HOCKEY

SKEAT, *skeet*, WALTER WILLIAM (1836-1912), an English student of languages who wrote nearly fifty books relating to his specialty, nearly all of which have become standard authority on the subjects covered by their titles. Among these are *Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*, *Primer of Classical and English Philology* and *The Science of Etymology*. He was born in London, and educated at Cambridge.



SKEL'TON, the hard framework that supports and protects the soft tissues of animals. It may lie within these tissues, as with man and the higher animals, or without them, as with turtles, mollusks, etc. The human skeleton is made up of about 200 bones, of which seventy-four belong to the axial skeleton—head, neck and trunk—and about 126 to the appendicular skeleton—the extremities. The number of bones varies a little from infancy to the adult period.

Axial Skeleton. The upper part of the human spine, or vertebral column, is made up of twenty-four separate bones called vertebrae, seven in the neck (cervical), twelve in the chest region (dorsal), and five in the loins (lumbar). To the dorsal vertebrae are attached the ribs, twelve on each side. The ribs are tipped in front with cartilages, which in the seven upper, or true, ribs, join them to the sternum. Of the remaining five, or false, ribs, the upper three are fixed to the cartilages above, but not to the sternum, and the lower two are free, or floating.

They form an easily expanded cavity for the heart and lungs, and as they are easily compressed because of the cartilages, should not be pressed out of position by tight clothing.

The *sternum*, or breast bone, occupies the front of the chest, articulates at its upper extremity with the two clavicles, or collar bones, and gives direct articulation to the seven upper ribs on each side. Below the vertebrae is the *sacrum*, composed of five separate bones in childhood, but growing into a solid structure in the adult. The *sacrum* forms the keystone of the pelvic girdle, distributing to the pelvis and lower limbs a large part of the bodily weight. At the tip of the spinal column is the *coccyx*, made up in infancy of four bones which become united in adulthood.

Strength, combined with great elasticity and flexibility, is provided for the spinal column by anterior, posterior and lateral ligaments, by pads of cartilage placed between

the vertebrae and by an alternation of anterior and posterior curves in the four principal regions. Hollows through each of the vertebrae form a passage for the spinal cord, and from this central axis branch nerves to all the vital centers. If maladjustment of the vertebrae and spinal curvature occur, there are likely to be serious nerve disturbances and interference with the bodily functions.

Upon the two upper vertebrae, the *atlas* and the *axis*, rests the skull. Hollows in the atlas fit projections on the skull, and the head is thus allowed to move forward and backward. The axis has a peg that projects upward through the atlas, allowing movement of the head from side to side.

The skull is composed of twenty-eight bones, divided into those of the *cranium* and the *face*. The cranial bones encase the brain and are eight in number, namely, occipital, two temporal, two parietal, frontal, ethmoid and sphenoid. They are united by sutures, which somewhat resemble dovetailing in carpentry, thus allowing a symmetrical development or growth at the edges. The bones themselves are made up of two layers, with a porous substance known as the arachnoid membrane lying between. This arrangement gives the cranium power to resist blows and to prevent a jar from being easily communicated to the brain.

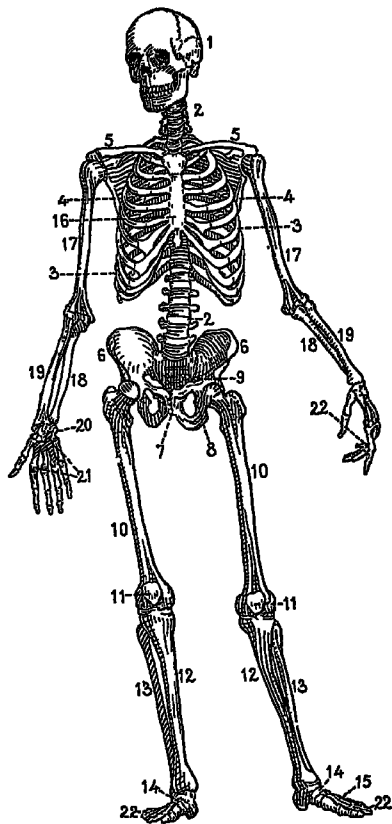
The bones of the face, fourteen in number, are the nasal, two superior maxillary, two lacrymal, two malar, two palate, two inferior turbinated, vomer and inferior maxillary bones. The remaining six bones of the skull are the tiny bones of the inner ears.

At the base of the tongue and attached to it is a bone known as the *hyoid*. No fewer than ten muscles arise from or are inserted into it. It articulates with no bones, but is suspended from the skull and supports the larynx by a ligament.

Appendicular Skeleton. This skeleton comprises the shoulder girdle, with the upper extremities (sixty-four bones), and the pelvic girdle, with the lower extremities (sixty-two bones). The *shoulder girdle* includes the clavicle, or collar bone, and the scapula, or shoulder blade. The *clavicle* is a slender bone, shaped like the italic *f*, extending from the sternum to the scapula, and attached to each by cartilage. It prevents the shoulder from falling toward the chest and gives freedom to the shoulder movement. The *scapula*

is a flat, irregular, triangular bone, lying outside the ribs, at the back of the chest, but separated and suspended from it by muscles.

The upper extremities include the following bones on each side; the humerus, the forearm,



THE SKELETON

1 Cranium 2 Vertebrae 3 Ribs 4 Scapula or shoulder blade 5 Clavicle or collar bone 6 Hip bone 7 Coccyx 8 Pubes 9 Sacrum 10 Femur or thigh bone 11 Patella or kneecap 12 Tibia 13 Fibula 14 Metatarsal bones 15 Phalanges 16 Sternum 17 Humerus 18 Ulna 19 Radius 20 Phalanges 21 Metacarpal bones

the carpus and the metacarpus. (1) At the upper extremity of the *humerus*, or arm bone, are found a head, a neck and two projections, while at its lower extremity it articulates with the ulna and radius. (2) The *forearm* is made up of the *radius* and the *ulna*, the former on the outside and the

latter on the inside, each uniting with the humerus by a hinge joint. At their lower extremities the bones of the forearm join the carpus, the radius directly and the ulna indirectly, through the intervention of a small fibro-cartilage. The ulna is heaviest at the end which joins the humerus, and the radius is heaviest at the end which joins the carpus.

(3) The *carpus*, or wrist, consists of eight small irregular bones, arranged in two rows, united by ligaments, and lying between the forearm and the palm. (4) The *metacarpus*, or palm, includes the five metacarpal bones, numbered from the thumb to the little finger. The fingers, or *digits*, are provided with three bones each, except the thumb, which has only two. These bones are known as the *phalanges*. The thumb has the advantage of moving freely on the carpus, by means of a saddle joint. The other carpal and metacarpal bones move upon one another by means of gliding joints.

The *pelvic girdle* comprises the innominate, or hip bones, immovably united to the sacrum. Each *innominate* is composed of three bones (ilium, ischium and os pubis), which unite in adult life along a Y-shaped line, located in the cup of the hip joint. The *ilium* spreads out a broad concave surface, in which the intestines are supported; the *ischium*, or haunch bone, forms the projection of the buttock and supports the body while sitting; the *pelvis*, or basin, furnishes the bony support upon which rest the organs of the lower abdominal cavity.

The lower extremities join the innominate bones in the hip joints. They include, on each side, the femur, the patella, the leg and the foot. (1) The *femur*, or thigh bone, is the longest bone in the body; at the upper end of the shaft is a head, a neck, an angle and a large and a small projection; at the lower end are two knobs (external and internal), articulating with the tibia and the fibula in the knee joint. (2) the *patella*, or kneecap, is a chestnut-shaped bone, placed in the tendon of the muscle, at the point where the tendon glides over the external surface of the femur. (3) The *leg* contains two bones, the *tibia*, or shin bone, and the *fibula*. The tibia is the larger bone and articulates with the femur. At the lower extremity is a horizontal, smooth surface, for articulation with the ankle. The fibula is a slender bone, located on the outside of the leg, covered entirely by muscles, except at

its upper and lower extremities. It articulates above and below with the tibia. (4) The *foot* is made up of a series of bones, arranged in three groups—the *tarsus*, or ankle, made up of seven bones; the *metatarsus*, made up of five metatarsal bones, and five digits, in each of which are found three bones, except in the great toe, which contains only two.

The articulation of the bony parts into a symmetrical, graceful whole, capable of united movement, is one of the marvels of nature. Every mechanical device known to man has its prototype in the bodily structure. See JOINTS.

SKEPTICISM, *skep'te siz'm*, a term in philosophy applied to a trend of reasoning in which the predominant attitude is doubt. Notable among the skeptics of the ancient world were Gorgias, Protagoras, Pyrrho and Timon. With the Renaissance the influence of this philosophy is apparent in the writings of Montaigne, Sanchez and Charron. Kant and Spencer were skeptics with regard to ultimate reality. In David Hume, modern skepticism had its foremost adherent.

SKI, *ske*, or **SKEE**, the Scandinavian snowshoe, consisting of a runner, or slat, of wood, six to ten feet long, about one-fourth of an inch thick and a little broader than a man's foot. It is slightly curved upward at the tip, and sometimes has a narrow groove along the middle of the lower surface, to keep it from slipping sideways. Skiing is great sport, and in Norway, Canada and the United States clubs compete every winter. In walking uphill a zigzag course is followed; the downhill motion is a swift slide, steered by means of a shaft. A jump is made on a hillside and is really a long flight through the air, from which the jumper is expected to alight on his feet and continue his course without falling. The record ski jump, 194 feet, was made in 1935, at Carv. Illinois.

SKIMMER. See **SCISSORSBILL.**

SKIN, THE, the outer covering of the body. It has a total area of from twelve to twenty square feet and varies in thickness from one-eighth to one-hundredth of an inch, according to location.

Structure. The skin is composed of two layers. The outer, the *epidermis*, or *cuticle*, is itself made up of several layers of cells of various shapes and sizes. The surface layer is composed of horny scales and is thick-

ened on the palms of the hands and on the soles of the feet. The inmost layer of the cuticle seldom varies in thickness, and it fits closely to the true skin. It contains the coloring matter which gives the characteristic tint to individuals and races. There is at all times a continual building of new cells and a throwing off of old ones from the surface. The hair and nails are a modification of the cuticle.

The true skin, the *dermis*, or *cutis*, in its outer layer contains many minute projections, called *papillae*, upon which the inmost layer of the cuticle is molded. They are most abundant where the sense of touch is most acute, as they contain nerve fibers

Glands. The skin also contains the *sudoriferous*, or *sweat*, *glands*, and the *sebaceous glands*. The former, consisting of small, round masses, surrounded by blood vessels in the fat tissue under the skin, send up a duct through the cutis to the surface of the body, where it pours its secretion through a slanting, valve-like opening. These glands are distributed over the whole surface of the body, but are most abundant and largest in the palm of the hand, on the sole of the foot, and on the brow. Sebaceous glands, abundant in those parts of the body supplied with hair and about the entrances to the body, as the nose, the lips and the external ear, are wholly wanting in the palms of the hands and the soles of the feet. Their secretion keeps the skin soft and pliable.

The skin serves as an organ of touch; a regulator of temperature, by the evaporation of the sweat that is always being poured to the surface of the body; a protection for the deeper tissues, and an organ of excretion, secretion and absorption.

Related Articles.	Consult the following
titles for additional information	
Baths	Nails
Glands	Nervous System
Hair	Perspiration
Hygiene	

SKIN GRAFTING, or AUTOPLASTY, *aw'toh plas'tē*, a surgical operation sometimes used in the treatment of sores or ulcers that are slow in healing. Small pieces of healthy skin, cut from other parts of the patient's body, or from the body of another person, are placed upon the raw sore. The skin particles gradually grow over the unhealed surface, in time effecting a cure.

SKINK, a small lizard native to the sandy deserts of North Africa and Southwestern Asia. Skinks are from six to eight inches

long, are reddish in color, banded with darker shades, and their bodies are entirely covered with rounded scales. One species, the *adda*, is celebrated throughout the East as being useful in the cure of various diseases to which the inhabitants of Egypt, Arabia and other Eastern countries are subject.

SKINNER, *skun'er*, OTIS (1858-), an American actor famed as an interpreter of character and romantic rôles wherein buoyancy and flashes of humor are blended. He was born at Cambridge, Mass. His early training was gained under the tutelage of Edwin Booth and Lawrence Barrett. From 1884 to 1889 he was a member of the Augustan Daly company and later for several seasons appeared as leading man for Modjeska. His most recent successes have included *The Harvester*, *Kismet*, *Cock o' the Walk*, *Mr. Antonio*, and *Sancho Pansa*.

SKUA, *sku'a*, a powerful bird of prey of the gull family, living on northern seacoasts, and having brown and white plumage and a strong, hooked beak. The Arctic and Antarctic species attack terns and small gulls, taking from them the fish they have caught; they also devour smaller birds.

SKULL. See **SKELETON**.

SKUNK, a fur-bearing animal of the weasel family, found from Northern Canada to Patagonia in the American continents. The



SKUNK

animal is about the size of a large cat, has feet and claws like a badger's and a tail like a squirrel's. The fur is black and glossy, streaked longitudinally with white. Skunks are notorious for a malodorous fluid which they eject as a means of defense, driving away their most aggressive enemies. They are sluggish ground animals, living in burrows and prowling usually at night, but occasionally in the daytime. They sometimes raid poultry yards, but so great is their service to the farmer as destroyers of mice, snakes and harmful insects and grubs that more than a dozen states have passed laws to protect

them. They are also valuable as producers of fur, which is often sold under the name "Alaska sable."

SKYE, *ski*, ISLE OF, an island of the Hebrides group, off the west coast of Scotland, forming part of the County of Inverness. It is the second in size of the Scottish islands, having an area of 535 square miles. Although it has some tillable land, Skye is largely mountain and moor, a land of rugged scenery and weird legend. Some of its lochs and glens are famous for picturesqueness—Loch Coiruisg, immortalized by Sir Walter Scott in his *Lord of the Isles*, and Glen Sligachan, at the head of the loch of the same name. The highest mountains are the Cooch Hills, in the south. The coasts of the island are deeply indented and the waters abound in cod, herring, ling and saithe. A fringe of fishing villages lines the coasts. Sheep raising is the chief occupation of the farmers, and much wool and sheep as well as fish goes through Portree, the principal port, which has a population of about 3,000, about one-fifth of the entire population of the island. To many persons the name *skye* is chiefly identified with a popular breed of pet dogs which are native to the island.

SKYE TERRIER, *ski ter'ier*, a small terrier native to Scotland, taking its name from the Isle of Skye. It is from eight to ten inches high, and has a long body and short legs. The hair, which may be sand-colored, gray or black, reaches to the ground, and on the forehead completely covers the eyes. The skyes, like most other terriers, are good rat dogs.

SKYLARK. See **LARK**.

SLAG, a compound formed in the processes of extracting metals from their ores. It is mainly a compound of silica with alumina or lime, or both, together with various other substances in small quantity. It always contains more or less of the metal from the extraction of which it results. The presence of silica gives a glassy appearance to the mass. Slag is sometimes cast into blocks and used for road making and building, and when reduced to powder it is used in making mortar. In some parts of Europe slag is employed to impart a glaze to bricks. Some kinds of iron slag are made into an imperfect glass, which is used for vases and other small articles.

SLANDER, false and malicious oral defamation of a person, which has a tendency

to injure his reputation. It is distinguished from *libel*, which is written or printed defamation of character. Aspersions spoken to a person are not deemed slander, because they are not injurious to reputation; but when spoken in the hearing of a third person, the law holds them actionable. If the words spoken are true and justifiable, no action can be successful. A statement which is not in itself actionable may by the court be held to be so if it was used and understood in a particular derogatory sense. An accusation of perjury is always actionable. Certain kinds of communication are regarded as conditionally privileged, as in the case of an employer who communicates to one who has a right to know particulars regarding one of his former employees. However, exemption from liability in such a case does not imply a right to express malicious slanderous opinions.

SLANG, inelegant and unauthorized language, including sporting and trade jargon, standard expressions used with some other than their correct meaning, and words of dubious origin. While certain slang expressions may be traced to the speech of illiterate or even outlaw classes, others are used by educated persons for the purpose of giving force and piquancy to their language. Slang is not ordinarily used in dignified writing, but it is common in a certain type of humorous literature. The everyday speech of the average person is more or less tinged with slang. The university student "crams" for his final examinations; the football enthusiast speaks of "booting the pigskin;" the actor about to receive his pay check is waiting for the "ghost to walk;" the artist complains that the committee "skied" his picture, and so on. In many cases slang is based on comparison, that is, on metaphor. Such expressions as "to cash in," "to go fifty-fifty," "to bring home the bacon," are really vulgarized figures of speech.

Like many other irregularities in language, slang expressions have their good and their bad points. They are an inevitable part of the growth of a language, and it often happens that a word introduced as slang becomes in time standardized. Such, for example, is true of *skyscraper*, *tandem*, *blizzard* and *gerrymander*. As has been suggested, slang sometimes gives variety and force to language, in the same way that figurative expressions are useful. Slang expressions,

however, must always be used with discretion. Vulgarities of speech should be avoided, and one should be careful about overloading the speech with slang phrases, no matter how expressive. The habitual and indiscriminate use of these expressions tends to cheapen the conversation, limit the vocabulary and deaden one's taste for the language of culture.

SLATE, a well-known hard variety of rock, which splits into thin plates, used for making school blackboards and slates and for roofing. While the prevailing color is gray of various shades, slate may be green, purple, red or black. It yields to the knife, but the different varieties vary in hardness. Slate occurs in all countries where there are metamorphic rocks. It is commonly divided into elevated beds of various degrees of thickness; and from the natural divisions of the rock these beds often form peaked and serrated mountains. The finest variety, which is used for the covering of roofs, is generally embedded in other slate rocks, of a coarser kind. Quarries of slate of this description are worked extensively in Vermont and Pennsylvania, and on a smaller scale in Maine and Virginia. The finest grades are used for writing slates and blackboards. In the making of marbleized slate, the background is painted on the stone, which is allowed to dry and is then dipped into water, upon which coloring matter adheres to the slate and thus produces the pattern, which is fixed by baking the slabs in a kiln.

SLAVERY, the system by which persons are held as the property of others. Slavery existed among the Hebrews, but in a very restricted form. Among the Greeks and Romans it was a rooted institution, its character of mildness or severity varying in different times and places. The slaves of the ancient Romans were either captives or debtors unable to pay. Originally they had no rights at all, and could be put to death for the smallest misdemeanor. Slaves were exceedingly numerous, and in later times almost monopolized the handicrafts and occupations, those of clerk, doctor and literary man included. Hosts of slaves were employed in the gladiatorial exhibitions. In Rome slaves were often set at liberty, and they sometimes won renown, as in the cases of Terence and Epictetus, but it was not until the time of the Empire that any important change took place

in the institution itself. Emperor Augustus granted the slave a legal status, and Antoninus took from the masters the power of life and death over their slaves.

The rise of Christianity modified the rigid chattel conception of the slave, and, accordingly, the law soon gave him personality and protection. Finally, Justinian, in the sixth century A. D., enlarged the *coloni*, men personally free, but tied to the soil like serfs. Thereafter slavery, though practiced by Rome's Tendon conquerors, was gradually replaced in medieval Europe by feudal vassalage, or serfdom. This persisted to modern times, surviving in Russia until 1861.

Modern Revival of the Slave Traffic. After the institution had become all but extinct in Europe, it had a new birth in the American colonies of European origin. The first shipment of negroes to the New World took place in 1503, when the Portuguese carried some to Santo Domingo. From that time a traffic in negroes across the Atlantic was carried on by all the colonial powers, the English being particularly active.

Slavery soon affected the social, economic, and political character of the colonies, especially in the South, where it was found profitable, to such an extent that in spite of the theory of equality then in vogue, abolition was deemed unwise and unnecessary by the majority of the people.

Denmark was the first nation to decree the end of the slave trade, in 1792, although the movement was started by the American Quakers in 1696 and their English brethren in 1729. Through the efforts of Thomas Clarkson and William Wilberforce, the House of Commons passed a bill against the traffic in 1792, but the House of Lords did not approve the measure until 1808, in the same month that the United States legislated against the further importation of Africans. On February 4, 1794, the French National Convention declared all the slaves in the French colonies free. The abolition of the slave trade by most of the other European powers was gradually provided for by treaty. These treaties were mainly enforced by a British squadron maintained off the west coast of Africa. In 1831 the British government emancipated all the slaves of the Crown, and in 1833 a bill was passed for the emancipation of all the slaves in British colonies. By this bill the slaves were to receive their freedom on August 1, 1834, and the sum of

\$100,000,000 was to be distributed as a gift among the slaveholders, to compensate for any loss they might sustain by the arrangement.

The United States Constitution provided for the abolition of the slave trade in 1808, but a struggle was waged against slavery itself for a half-century thereafter. It culminated in the Civil War, as a result of which abolition was declared by proclamation in 1863 and by Constitutional amendment in 1865. In 1873 the Spanish government abolished slavery in Porto Rico; and in 1886 abolition in Cuba took place. Slavery existed in Brazil until 1888. In Ethiopia 2,000,000 of its people were held in bondage until conquest of the country by Italy in 1936, despite sincere efforts of Emperor Haile Selassie to effect their liberation.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Abolitionists	Kansas-Nebraska Bill
Brown, John	Lincoln, Abraham
Calhoun, John C.	Mason and Dixon's Line
Civil War	Missouri Compromise
Clay, Henry	Phillips, Wendell
Compromise of 1850	Political Parties in the United States
Crittenden Compromise	Reconstruction
Dred Scott Decision	Squatter Sovereignty
Emancipation	Serfs
Proclamation	Underground Railroad
Feudal System	Wilberforce, William
Fugitive Slave Laws	Wilmot Proviso
Garrison, William Lloyd	

SLAVONIA. See CROATIA AND SLAVONIA.

SLAVS, *slavus*, a branch of the Aryan, or Indo-Germanic, family, constituting the greater portion of the population of Russia, Central Europe east of Germany, and Siberia. They include Russians, Poles, Czechs, or Bohemians, Slovaks, Slovenians, Serbs, Croats, Montenegrins and Bulgarians, and number about 180,000,000. In stature the Slavs are a little below the average Aryan, and they have broad heads. Their skin is swarthy, light brown or pale white; their eyes, brown, gray or black. Representing a civilization not advanced to full maturity, the Slavs were stirred to great revolutionary upheavals during the World War. In Russia the imperial government was overthrown, and the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, a Communist state, succeeded it. In the Slavic portions of the dismembered Austro-Hungarian empire and kingdom, the new governments of Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia were established.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Austria-Hungary	Bohemia
Balkan Wars	Bosnia

Bulgaria	Poland
Croatia and Slavonia	Russia
Czech	Serbia
Czecho-Slovak	Slovaks
Republic	Slovenians
Jugo-Slavia	Soviet
Montenegro	World War

SLEEP, the state of repose or quiescence during which the body restores its worn-out cells and the mind is rested and renewed. Unconsciousness is complete or partial; the body is relaxed and the vital functions are at a low ebb. Sleep is periodical, a certain number of hours out of each twenty-four being necessary to physical and mental well-being. Night hours are best adapted to sleep, and daytime sleep is never as refreshing as that taken in the natural darkness. Sleep is also rhythmical, being deepest the second hour and becoming lighter as the end of the sleep period approaches.

Much study has been put upon the physiological causes of sleep, different theories attributing it (1) to the pressure of congestion on the brain and nerve centers, or quite to the contrary; (2) to a lack of blood in these centers; (3) to the presence in the system of the by-products of combustion and (4) to the dissociation, under conditions of fatigue, of the neurones, or nerve cells. None of these theories entirely accounts for sleep, and it is probably true that it has a combination of physiological causes.

The regularity and conditions of sleep have a marked effect on the health, especially on that of growing children. Babies sleep most of the time; children below twelve should have twelve hours of sleep; few adults are at their best on fewer than eight hours. Sleeping rooms should be sanitary, open to the sunlight during the day and well ventilated at night. Open-air sleeping is growing in favor, and the sheltered, screened-in sleeping porch forms a part of many modern houses and living apartments. The best bed for sleep is one with wire springs, a mattress of hair or felt, and warm, lightweight wool or cotton coverings.

SLEEPING SICKNESS, an incurable disease not uncommon in equatorial Africa. It is caused by a parasite communicated to man by the bite of the tsetse fly (which see). It is usually fatal. In recent years whole sections in Africa have been depopulated by its ravages. The sleeping sickness stage begins when the disease reaches the nervous system. The patient becomes apathetic, the apathy deepens into stupor, and he literally sleeps himself to death.

SLEEPWALKING. See **SOMNAMBULISM**.

SLIDELL, *slī del'*, JOHN (1793-1871), an American politician, born in New York City and educated at Columbia College. He removed to New Orleans in 1819, and eventually became United States district attorney for Louisiana. In 1853 he was elected to the United States Senate, but resigned upon the secession of Louisiana. Later he was appointed special commissioner of the Confederate States to France and ran the blockade of Charleston, S. C. He was captured with James M. Mason, however, while aboard the British steamer *Trent*, and was arrested and taken to Fort Warren, Boston. Upon his release he sailed for England, where he took up his interrupted negotiations with foreign governments, but without success. At the close of the war he settled in London, where he died. See **TRENT AFFAIR**.

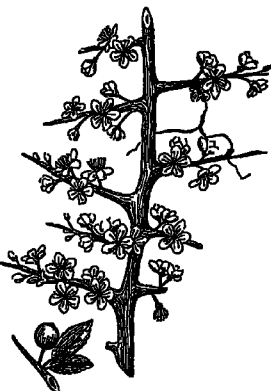
SLIME MOLDS, a group of minute plants of exceedingly simple structure, which live upon rotting bark and decaying wood, in moist, shady places. They are not easily distinguished from animals; in fact, they have been thus described. In no other plant is protoplasm found in such large quantity. During one period of its life the slime mold develops spores which, when dry, retain life for an indefinite period; but as soon as moistened, they swell quickly, burst and discharge their protoplasm. This protoplasm lengthens and develops a delicate hair at one end, by means of which it swims about freely. The form modifies until it resembles an amoeba (which see). Then many of the plants unite and make the slimy plasmodium, which slides about over decaying vegetable matter until ready again to produce spores and repeat the circle of its life. The largest plasmodia may be several inches square, although most of them are much smaller.

SLING, a simple little device of very ancient origin, used for throwing stones or bullets. One kind consists of a strap, with two strings attached to it. The stone or bullet is lodged in the strap, and the sling is whirled rapidly round in a circle, the ends of the strings being held in the hand. The missile is thrown when one of the strings is allowed to fly loose. The velocity with which the projectile is discharged is the same as that with which it is whirled round in a circle whose radius is the length of the string. The sling was a very general instrument of war among the ancients.

Another kind consists of a Y-shaped stick, to each fork of which is attached an end of a thick rubber band. The stick is held in one hand, and with the other a stone is held against the elastic, which when stretched backward and then released throws the stone with much force. The catapult, or slingshot, may be a dangerous weapon, and in most cities boys are forbidden to use it. A sling used by the Paraguay Indians, the Patagonians and the Gauchos of Argentina, called a *balas*, consists of a rope which has, at each end, a heavy stone, or bullet, of metal or hardened clay. It is thrown so as to entangle the legs of the animal at which it is aimed.

SLIPPERWORT. See CALCEOLARIA.

SLOE, *slo*, a spiny, many-branched shrub or small tree of the plum family, possessing a very hard, tough wood, found in Europe and Asia, on the mountains in the southern and eastern parts of the United States and in South-eastern Canada. Its black, round fruit, about the size of a pea, is used for preserves and liquors. The



SLOE BRANCH AND FRUIT

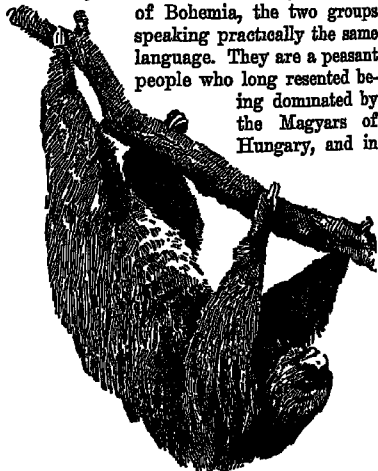
juice is much used in the manufacture of a spurious port wine.

SLOTH, a mammal inhabiting South and Central America. The claws of the sloth are long and curved, the feet are turned inward. This adaptation is of great service to the animal in its life in the trees, but it makes walking on the ground almost impossible. The sloths live on the leaves, buds, and barks of trees. The best known species is the *ai*, which has three toes and is of a brownish-gray color, with darker tints on the face and limbs. The fur is very coarse. The *unau*, or *two-toed sloth*, has an average length of about two feet, and its color is a lighter gray than that of the *ai*. The tail in both species is usually lacking, or is of a rudimentary character.

SLOT MACHINE, the name given to two kinds of automatic devices, one of which is used for legitimate purposes of trade, the other for gambling. They are alike only in that the mechanism in each is set in motion by a coin dropped in a slot. The first is a sort of "automatic salesman." It may contain an assortment of chewing gum, candy, peanuts or cigars, the name of the brands or flavors being indicated above a series of levers; and the purchaser after dropping his coin presses the lever according to his choice. Another slot machine is used to release gas for household use; still another supplies telephone service. In 1916 automatic restaurants were opened; these serve food enclosed in little wall compartments behind small doors operating on the slot machine principle.

The slot machine used in gambling consists of a wheel divided radially into sections. The bettor stakes on a particular section and drops in his coin, which starts the wheel revolving. If the wheel stops with pointer indicating the section on which he has staked, he wins. The chances against winning are at least 60 to 40, and very frequently less.

SLOVAKS, a Slavic people found chiefly in Moravia and Slovakia, former territories of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. The Slovaks, who number more than 2,500,000, are closely related to the Czechs (see CZECH) of Bohemia, the two groups speaking practically the same language. They are a peasant people who long resented being dominated by the Magyars of Hungary, and in



SLOTH

1918 they joined their kinsmen in Bohemia in setting up the Czechoslovak Republic

SLOVENIANS, *slo vé ni anz*, a South Slavic people inhabiting portions of the old Austro-Hungarian monarchy. They are found in Carniola, Southern Carinthia, Styria and various districts north of the Adriatic Sea. They number over 1,500,000. The Slovenians constitute one group of the Jugo-Slavic peoples, who united in 1918 to form a new state. See JUGO-SLAVIA; WORLD WAR.

SLOYD, *sloid*, a system of manual training, originating in Sweden and quite generally adopted in other countries. The Swedish word *slog*, in its English form *sloyd* means *skill of hand*. The original plan limited the work to the manufacture, by whittling, of small household utensils, such as wooden spoons, knives and forks. In 1876, Otto Solomon, director of the normal school at Naas, extended the system by the introduction of mechanical drawing, extended the use of tools, and adapted more difficult exercises.

The system in vogue in the United States and Canada is patterned after Solomon's idea and constitutes the foundation of most of the manual training work for boys in elementary schools. The material used is wood, cardboard or iron. A special line of instruction is prepared for each class of material. See MANUAL TRAINING.

SLUG, the name applied to several genera of mollusks, resembling the snails but lacking an external shell, although many of them possess a rudimentary organ of this nature concealed more or less completely by the mantle. The slugs have four tentacles, and the eyes are borne on the tips of the larger pair. The *great gray slug*, introduced from Europe into the United States and Canada, usually frequents hollow trees and undisturbed heaps of vegetation. The *giant yellow slug* of California and the *black slug* are other species. See SNAIL.

SMALLPOX, or **VARIO'LA**, an acute, infectious disease, characterized by an eruption with papular, vesicular and pustular stages, followed by crusting. It has been known and described since the early Middle Ages, and at times has been one of the most terrible of scourges. No infant is too young to take the disease, and no adult is too aged. The contagion lies in the sores, or *pustules*, and it is also probably given off through the breath and the pores of the skin. The disease manifests itself about twelve days after

exposure and varies in duration according to the severity of the attack. In minor cases the recovery is rapid and complete, but in severe cases death may intervene quickly. Unless great care is exercised during the disease and after, the patient may be left with bad scars or with serious affection of some of the organs, particularly of the eyes.

In 1780 the English surgeon, Jenner, discovered the method of preventing smallpox by vaccination and since that time it has been demonstrated that the disease may be practically stamped out by the vaccination of the whole population. Exposure to the disease should be followed by immediate vaccination, unless this has been recently done. See VACCINATION.

SMELL. The sense of smell originates in the olfactory lobes of the brain, and the olfactory nerves coming from these centers are distributed to the mucous membrane of the upper part of the nasal cavities. In order that odors may be detected, air must pass through the nostrils; hence a person sniffs when he desires to scent an odor more keenly. The sense of smell in man is not nearly so keen as in many of the lower animals, though he can probably detect more odors than any of these animals.

Odors are numerous and difficult to classify, and they are named from the substance from which they arise, as the odor of musk and the perfume of violets. The nerves of smell are stimulated by an odor when it first acts upon them, but if long continued, this is lost, and the person fails to recognize it at all.

The nature of odor is not well understood. That it arises from gaseous or volatile matter all agree, and some authorities consider that it can arise from matter in a gaseous state alone; others disagree, and in support of their theory point to the fact that substances like musk can fill a large space with odor for weeks and not diminish perceptibly in weight. The sense of smell is closely allied to the sense of taste, which it undoubtedly aids.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
Nose
Perfumes
Special Senses
Taste

SMELLING SALTS, a preparation of ammonium carbonate, usually scented with lavender, sometimes with bergamot, used as a stimulant and restorative in cases of faintness. It is put up in small, fancy bottles

which may easily be carried in a pocket or handbag, and proves most useful in emergencies.

SMELT, a family of fishes allied to the salmon. They are slender and delicate and usually measure about eight inches in length. They receive their name because of their odor, which is like that of a cucumber. Smelts live off the coasts of Europe and North America. In the United States they abound along the New England and the California coasts. In Scotland they are called *sparkling*. Their use as food is steadily growing.

SMETANA, *sme tak'nah*, FRIEDRICH (1824-1884) a Bohemian composer and pianist, the founder of the Bohemian school of composition. He founded a musical academy at Prague, after studying under Liszt, but went to Sweden in 1856 and became conductor of the Gothenburg Philharmonic concerts. There he remained until 1866, when he became kapellmeister at the National Bohemian Theatre. In his later years, his mind gave way, and he died in the Prague lunatic asylum. Smetana's works have a true Bohemian atmosphere; they are thoroughly original and contain not a few passages of striking power and beauty. He composed several operas, *The Bartered Bride*, *Two Widows*, *Dalbor* and others, besides many compositions for the piano and orchestra.

SMTLAX, a group of plants belonging to the hily family. Most of them are climbing or trailing, and numerous species are found in Asia and America. Sarsaparilla is obtained from the roots of several species, and the roots of others are edible. The species known as green brier and the carrion flower are found in the United States. The cultivated plant known to gardeners as smilax is really an asparagus.

SMILES, SAMUEL (1812-1904), an English writer, born at Haddington, Scotland, and educated for the medical profession. He practiced for some time as a surgeon at Haddington and at Leeds, and then became editor of the *Leeds Times*. He is the author of many works on industrial enterprises, the chief of which are *Life of George Stephenson*, *Workmen's Earnings, Strikes and Wages* and *Lives of the Engineers*. His inspirational books, *Self-Help*, *Character, Duty and Thrift*, have had a wide popularity, the first especially, having been translated into seventeen languages. These works are characterized by their clear and simple style.

SMITH, ADAM (1723-1790), a British economist, founder of the science of political economy, was born at Kirkecaldy, Scotland. He attended the universities of Glasgow and Oxford, afterwards lectured on literature and philosophy, and for twelve years occupied the chair of logic and ethics at the University of Glasgow. His great work, *The Wealth of Nations*, the first systematic treatise on economics, appeared in 1776. This admirable book was an inspiration to all later students of economic subjects.

SMITH, ALFRED EMANUEL (1873-), a political leader who rose from the underprivileged classes "on the sidewalks of New York" to the governorship of his state, to which he was elected four times. Statesman-like qualities displayed made him a national figure, and the Democratic party nominated him for President in 1928, but he was defeated by Republican Nominee Hoover.

His school days ended at the age of twelve, when his father died, and he began work to aid in family support. He was a newsboy, clerk in a fish market, a truck driver; his affability and gifts of speech led him into the political field, and he followed an upward path from precinct worker to a jury-commission clerkship, member of the state legislature, speaker of the lower house, sheriff of New York County, president of the New York City board of aldermen, then to a four-term governorship.

After defeat for the Presidency, he turned to business and became president of the company that erected the world's tallest building, the Empire State. He terminated a long friendship with Franklin D. Roosevelt when he denounced that President's policies.

SMITH, FRANCIS HOPKINSON (1838-1915), an American engineer, artist and author, born at Baltimore, Md. In his work as engineer he became also a successful contractor and constructed several important government works on the Atlantic seaboard, among them the Race Rock lighthouse. As an artist he became known through illustrations he made for his magazine articles and his water colors and charcoal sketches. He wrote a number of novels, probably the best of which is *Colonel Carter of Cartersville*. Among his other books are *Caleb West*, *A White Umbrella in Mexico*, *The Fortunes of Oliver Horn*, *The Under Dog*, *Tides of Barnegat*, *Peter, Forty Minutes Late* and *Kennedy Square*.

SMITH, GOLDWIN (1823-1910), an eminent publicist, historian and educator, born at Reading, Berkshire, England. He was

educated at Eton and at Oxford (was called to the bar, though he never practiced), and became professor of modern history at the latter university. He lectured in the United States in 1864, and two years afterwards was offered a professorship in English and constitutional history at Cornell University. He remained there three years, then became a resident of Toronto, Ont., where he founded *The Canadian Monthly*, *The Nation* and *The Week*. Smith was widely read because of his sound knowledge and lucid style. Of his historical writings, representative volumes are *A Short History of England Down to the Reformation* and *Irish History and the Irish Question*. His other writings, which were numerous and covered a wide field, include *Labor and Capital*, *Guesses at the Riddle of Existence*, *My Memory of Gladstone* and *In Quest of Light*.



GOLDWIN SMITH

SMITH, JOHN (1580-1631), commonly known as Captain John Smith, one of the founders of the English colony in Virginia, born at Willoughby, in Lincolnshire. After many adventures as a soldier of fortune in Europe, Asia and Africa, he went out with the first expedition of the London Company to America in 1606. Dissensions broke out before the destination was reached, and Smith was condemned to be hanged; but he escaped this fate and became the most influential member of the colony. He made important geographical discoveries, obtained supplies from the natives and finally was entrusted with the guidance of the colony. In this task he displayed notable executive ability. In 1609, according to his account, he was captured by Powhatan, and was saved by Pocahontas from being killed. In the same year he was injured by an explosion of gunpowder, and shortly afterwards he returned to England. Five years later he reached America again and explored the coast of New England. He wrote *A True Relation of Virginia*, *The*

Summer Isles and *Description of New England*—books of real historical and geographical value.

SMITH, JOSEPH (1805-1844), the founder of the Church of the Latter Day Saints, or the Mormons, was born in Sharon, Vt. He moved with his parents to Palmyra, N. Y., when he was ten years old. At the age of twenty-two he announced that in a vision an angel had revealed to him the spot where the Bible of the western continent was buried. Following the directions thus obtained, Smith claimed that there was delivered to him the volume containing the doctrine on which Mormonism is founded. The new sect met with persecution and the Mormons were gradually driven westward. In 1844 Smith was arrested for alleged violations of the law, and lodged in jail at Carthage, Ill., where he was shot by a mob. See MORMONS.

JOSEPH F. SMITH
Sixth President of the
Mormons, nephew of
the Founder.

SMITH, SAMUEL FRANCIS (1809-1895), an American preacher and hymn writer, best known as the author of the national anthem beginning, "My Country, 'Tis of Thee." He was born in Boston, Mass., and was graduated from Harvard College in 1829 and from Andover Theological Seminary in 1832. He was pastor of the Baptist Church, Waterville, Mo., and subsequently became professor of modern languages in Waterville College. Later he was pastor at Newton, Mass., editor of the *Christian Review*, Boston, and editor of the publications of the Baptist Missionary Union (1854-1869). He wrote, in addition to poems, *Life of Rev Joseph Grafton*, *Missionary Sketches*, *A History of Newton (Mass.)* and *Rambles on Mission Fields*. See AMERICA.

SMITH, SYDNEY (1771-1845), an English humorist, born at Woodford, Essex. He was graduated at New College, Oxford, and was ordained in the established church. Moving to Edinburgh in 1798, he helped to found the *Edinburgh Review*, to which he made frequent contributions in later years. In 1803 he moved to London, where he gained note as a preacher, writer and lecturer.

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er. He was gradually promoted in the church, until in 1831 he was appointed a canon in Saint Paul's Cathedral. His principal writings are his *Letters on the Subject of the Catholics, to My Brother Abraham, who Lives in the Country*, by Peter Plymley, a satirical essay in the interests of Catholic emancipation. These and other less famous writings abound in logic and good humor.

SMITH COLLEGE, an institution for the higher education of women, founded by Miss Sophia Smith at Northampton, Mass. It was chartered in 1871 and class sessions began in 1875. All undergraduate courses of study lead to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The degree of Master of Arts is conferred for postgraduate work. Among the college buildings are the library, containing about 90,000 books, an observatory, a conservatory, an art gallery and a spacious auditorium. The faculty numbers about 185, and there are over 1,950 students. The college is a contributor to the American Schools of Classical Study at Rome and Athens, to the marine biological laboratory at Woods Hole, Mass., and to the zoological station at Naples.

SMITH-HUGHES ACT. See HIGH SCHOOL, subhead *Smith-Hughes Act*.

SMITH'S FALLS, ONT., in Lanark County, on the Rideau Canal and the Canadian Pacific and Canadian National railroads, forty-five miles south of Ottawa. A large agricultural implement factory is located here; there are also stove factories, woolen, flour and planing mills. The town has a collegiate institute, two hospitals, a town hall, a library and a market. Population in 1931, 7,108.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION, an institution created by an act of Congress in 1846, to carry into effect the provisions of the will of James Smithson, an Englishman, who, in 1826, bequeathed \$515,000 to the United States to found at Washington an establishment for the "increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." The institution is governed by a board of regents, consisting of the Vice-President of the United States, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, three members of the Senate, three members of the House of Representatives and six citizens of the United States appointed by joint resolution of Congress. Its executive officer is the secretary, chosen by the regents.

The first secretary, Professor Joseph Henry, outlined the scope and administrative

policy of the Institution, and to his wisdom and foresight the efficiency of the institution is largely due. The aim is to encourage original research in science and literature and to diffuse knowledge by publishing reports of investigations, thereby helping to bring about a free interchange of ideas among scholars throughout the world. To the original bequest of Smithson have been added other donations and bequests; the total income is now approximately \$1,000,000.

The three series of publications systematically issued are *Contributions to Knowledge*, *Miscellaneous Collections* and *Annual Reports*. These are distributed free of charge to public libraries, educational institutions and individuals engaged in literary or scientific research. In connection with this distribution the Institution has established a system of international exchanges, so that it obtains similar publications from nearly all countries of the world.

In addition to the work of the Institution proper, the secretary has charge of the National Museum, which is maintained by the government; also of the Bureau of Ethnology, which is a department in the Institution, of the Astrophysical Observatory and of the National Zoological Park. The Institution occupies beautiful buildings on the Mall, extending from the Capitol to the Washington Monument. Here are found the original buildings of the Institution and the National Museum, while the Bureau of Ethnology occupies rented quarters in another part of the city, and the Zoological Park is about two miles north. See NATIONAL MUSEUM OF THE UNITED STATES.

James Smithson (1765-1829), founder of the Smithsonian Institution, was the son of Hugh Smithson, first Duke of Northumberland. He was educated at Pembroke and Oxford and was a fellow in the Royal Society. By his will he left to his nephew about \$515,000, stipulating that if the legatee died without issue, the whole amount should pass to the United States, to found at Washington an institution to be called the "Smithsonian Institution," and to be conducted for the advancement of learning. Strangely, this benefactor of the United States never crossed the Atlantic Ocean; he favored a land he knew only by reputation.

SMOKE, the visible vapor which rises from burning substances. In its more extended sense the word is applied to all the

volatile products of combustion, including soot, but the term is frequently applied to merely the carbonaceous matter which is held in suspension by the gases. Smoke from the many furnaces of a large city often becomes a public nuisance, and in many places laws have been passed requiring the adoption of some device for burning the soot, but no one method has been found successful in all cases. There are many practical difficulties in the way of consuming smoke, but experience has shown that none of them are impossible to overcome. If sufficient air is supplied to furnish oxygen, the combustible parts of smoke can be made to burn and leave only invisible vapors and gases.

In recent years the shortage of anthracite coal and the necessity of using soft coal for domestic purposes has resulted in a general smoke evil in the United States. The resulting damage is inestimable.

SMOKELESS POWDER, a powerful explosive, is made by combining some form of cellulose (wood fiber) with a mixture of sulphuric and nitric acids and then adding acetic acid or acetone. The smokeless powder most extensively used is made by kneading guncotton (which see) into a paste with acetic acid. When dry this paste forms a cake which is then made into flakes, cords or grains, according to the purpose for which it is intended. This powder has about twice the strength of gunpowder. It is smokeless because the products of the explosion are all gaseous. The products of the explosion of gunpowder are nearly one-half solid matter, and it is this matter that makes the smoke.

Smokeless powder has replaced gunpowder in all artillery and in the navies of all leading nations. It is also used for blasting in certain cases. Each nation has its own variety of powder, to which it gives a special name. *Cordite* is used by the British; *indurite*, by the United States, and *B. N.*, by the French.

SMOLLETT, THOMAS GEORGE (1721-1771), a novelist and miscellaneous writer, born near Dumbarton, Scotland. He studied medicine at the University of Glasgow and was apprenticed to a surgeon. His interest, however, was rather in literature than in surgery; and in 1739 he went to England with a tragedy, *The Regicide*, but failing to get for it a stage production, he joined the navy as surgeon's mate. On his return to England he again took up literature. The first of his novels, *Roderick Random*, appeared in 1748,

and its success was immediate. Among his later works the most noteworthy are *Peregrine Pickle* and *Humphrey Clinker*. His novels are carelessly constructed, often coarse and usually marked by a humor which descends frequently into burlesque.

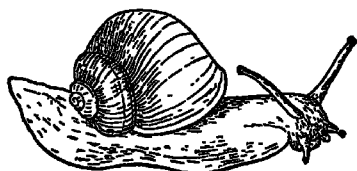
SMOOT, REED (1862-), a United States Senator, born at Salt Lake City, Utah. He was educated at the Brigham Young Academy, Provo, Utah, in 1900 was made an apostle of the Mormon Church, and in 1903 was elected to the United States Senate. His prominence in the Mormon Church, an institution long favoring polygamy, caused strong opposition to his serving, and in 1906 he was unseated. In the following year, however, he was reinstated by Senatorial vote, and was reelected until 1933. Throughout his terms he was an able representative of the Republicans and an expert on tariff questions.

SMUTS, JAN CHRISTIAN (1870-), a soldier and statesman of South Africa, was born in Cape Colony. He commanded part of the Boer forces in the South African War (1899-1902). He took a leading part in the creation of the Union of South Africa in 1910, and was an influential member of the first Cabinet. In the World War he took part in the conquest of German Southwest Africa, and of German East Africa. In 1919 he represented his country at the Paris Peace Conference and in the same year became Prime Minister of South Africa. In 1933, in a coalition Cabinet, he was appointed deputy prime minister. Gen Smuts was not only an able soldier and executive but a profound scientist.

SMUTS, small fungi which live in certain plants as parasites. Wheat, oats and barley smuts attack the seeds, and can be destroyed by treating the seeds before planting. Wheat seeds soaked for five minutes in a solution of one pound of copper sulphate to a gallon of water are rendered immune, and oat seeds are treated by spreading them on the floor and sprinkling them with a solution consisting of one pound of formalin to fifty gallons of water. Another remedy consists in soaking the seeds in water above 135° F. As corn smuts do not attack the seeds, they require a different treatment. Rotation of crops is the safest cure for corn smut, as the spores cannot live in the soil more than one season. Infected ears should never be used for planting, but should be thoroughly destroyed by burning.

SMYRNA, *smir'na*, renamed **IZMIR**, is Turkey's chief seaport, on the Gulf of Smyrna, 200 miles southwest of Constantinople. It occupies a site consisting partly of level ground and partly of the slopes of Mount Pagus, and when seen from the sea presents an attractive appearance. The city is divided into five quarters—the European, quarter, with a fine quay, modern shops and hotels; the Greek, the Armenian, the Turkish and the Jewish quarters. Smyrna has a fine wharf and carries on an important foreign trade, exporting raisins, sponges, carpets and rugs, opium, tobacco, licorice and numerous other articles. The rugs for which it is especially famed come from small places around the city. Population, 154,000 in 1934, about one-third of whom are Greeks and one-third Turks. During the World War Smyrna was bombarded by an allied fleet, but was not occupied until the armistice was signed. In 1920 it was awarded to Greece. In September, 1922, following a successful attack by the Turkish army, the city was burned, many of its inhabitants were massacred, and Greek occupation of Asia Minor came to an end. Smyrna reverted to Turkish control.

SNAIL, a small mollusk, which inhabits a univalve, or one-piece, shell. Two general divisions are recognized—land snails and water snails. The shells of land snails are arranged in whorls, which may rise to a point



SNAIL

or may be comparatively flat. Some of them are very beautiful. To protect itself the snail can withdraw into its shell and seal the opening with a membrane. In moving about it carries its shell, to which it is attached by a muscular process, on its back. The part of the snail that protrudes from the shell is called the foot. The head is on the forward end of the foot and contains two sets of tentacles, or feelers, the larger of which are tipped by the eyes. The snail moves slowly, by contracting one portion of the foot after another, and it is aided in its movements by a slimy fluid which it secretes. Land snails live in

damp, shady places usually amongst moss and decaying wood. In France and Italy a species of small snail is cultivated as a food.

SNAKE, a reptile, distinguished by its long, slender body, which tapers gradually to a tail and which is covered with horny scales, but never with bony plates. Snakes have no limbs, though in some species rudimentary hind limbs may be detected. The ribs are very numerous, some snakes having more than 300 pairs. These give form to the body, aid in breathing, and are also, in connection with the scales, organs of locomotion. Snakes crawl upon the ground, by swinging their bodies in loops from side to side, and most of them are able to raise their heads and a large portion of their bodies into the air. They have hooked, conical teeth, which serve to hold their prey, but are useless for chewing.

Some species of snakes are fatally venomous, but most of them are harmless. In the venomous serpents two long poison fangs are firmly fixed in a movable bone, above which is a gland for the secretion of poison. The teeth are perforated by tubes through which the poison is forced. The tongue of a snake is forked, and can be pushed far out of the mouth. It is probably an organ of touch rather than of taste.

Snakes have no eyelids and no external ears. Their nostrils are on the snout. The lower jaw is loosely articulated to the upper, and the tissues about the mouth are so elastic that a snake can swallow an animal really much greater in diameter than itself. Some snakes lay eggs, others produce the young alive. In most species the mother takes great care of her young, and it is said that in one species, the mother, when alarmed, will open her mouth and allow the young to run to cover within her body.

Each locality of the temperate and torrid zones has its own peculiar species of snakes. Some live only in warm, arid regions; some live in moist, shady places, while still others inhabit the water. All the species are vastly more numerous and much larger in the tropics than in the temperate regions. Over 1,500 genera are known, and about twenty poisonous species are found in the United States. Of these the majority inhabit the southwestern portions of the country; two rattlesnakes and the copperhead are the only poisonous species that are natives of the Northern states.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

Adder	Copperhead
Anaconda	Moccasin Snake
Black Snake	Python
Boa	Rattlesnake
Cobra	Viper

SNAKE BIRD. See DARTER.

SNAKE CHARMING. See SERPENT CHARMING.

SNAKE DANCE. See HOPI.

SNAKE INDIANS. See SHOSHONEAN INDIANS

SNAKE RIVER, a large river of the northwestern part of the United States. It rises in Yellowstone Park, pursues a winding course through Southern and Western Idaho, enters Washington at Lewiston, the head of navigation, and discharges into the Columbia River, near Pasco, Wash. It forms the boundary between Idaho and Northeastern Oregon for 170 miles, and between Idaho and Southeastern Washington for thirty miles. Its upper course is broken by numerous falls and rapids, the most spectacular of which are Shoshone Falls. The total length of the river is about 1,100 miles.

SNAPDRAGON, a group of annual and perennial herbs, most of them native to the temperate parts of the northern hemisphere. They bear spikes of showy, variously-colored flowers having two lipped corollas, so shaped that if opened forcibly they afterward shut with a snap. Thus the name is accounted for. The lower, three-lobed lip is so swollen as to resemble a mouth, and to suggest such descriptive names as dog's, rabbit's and toad's mouth. The plants grow to a height of from one to three feet. They are associated with old-fashioned gardens, but are much cultivated in conservatories. In folklore these plants are credited with power to undo charms.

SNAPPING TURTLE, a species of freshwater tortoise, common to all parts of the United States. It sometimes reaches a length

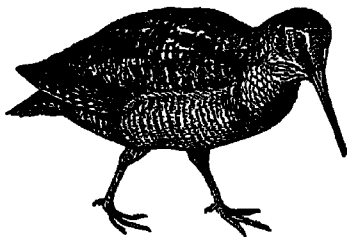


SNAPPING TURTLE

of three feet and is notable for its fierceness. One species, found around the lower Missis-

sippi Valley, is called the *alligator-snapper* and is noted for the strength of its large jaws. It feeds on small animals and receives its name from its habit of snapping at everything within its reach.

SNIFE, a wading bird usually seen along the shores of rivers and lakes. Snipes are slender and active, both on land and on the



SNIFE

wing. All have narrow bills, longer than the heads, and their eyes are set far back. Usually the plumage is brownish or grayish, and is spotted or streaked with white or black, the whole blending closely with the colors of the ground. The nests are made on the ground among tall marsh grasses, and the eggs, four in number, are olive-brown or drab splotted with brown. When the bird is aroused near its nest, it flies up and down in a zigzag course, making with its wings a curious drumming sound. Common species are *Wilson's snipe*, a native American bird, and a similar species, the *European snipe*; others are the small *jacksnipe* of Northern Europe and the *giant snipe* of Brazil.

SNORING, *snor'ing*, a breathing with harsh, rough noise through the nose and mouth while sleeping, especially with rattling vibrations of the soft palate. While there are some persons who sleep with open mouth, owing to relaxation of facial muscles, there are others who because of some diseased condition of the nasal passage cannot breathe through the nose. Children who snore do so almost invariably because of some throat or nasal trouble, which should be corrected. Adenoids which hinder nose breathing are a frequent cause of snoring in children. See ADENOIDS

SNORRI STURLUSON, *snor're stoor'loo son*, (1179-1241), an Icelandic poet and historian. His most famous work, the *Prose Edda*, one of the earliest masterpieces of Scandinavian literature, was completed in

1222, but was not published until the seventeenth century. His *Heimskringla* and record of the kings of Norway from the earliest time to Magnus Erlingsson (1177) also was printed then. Snorri was also a lawyer and a statesman, and in 1215 was president of the legislative assembly and higher court of Iceland. He negotiated a peace treaty between Iceland and King Haakon of Norway, and that ruler, later becoming suspicious of him, had him put to death.

SNOW, frozen vapor falling to the earth in flakes, and covering Mother Earth with a white blanket to protect and prepare vegetation for its awakening in spring. Snow is also of incalculable value as it piles in masses on lofty mountains, where the gradual thaw of spring and summer feeds the springs and streams.

Whenever precipitation occurs at a temperature below 32° F., snow is formed. It is not frozen rain, but consists of minute crystals formed by the freezing vapor. These take various shapes, but are patterns of a six-pointed star, which in large flakes are very beautiful. By collecting such flakes on a coal-black surface, these crystals may be studied with an ordinary magnifying glass. Each flake contains a number of crystals, so arranged as to form beautiful designs, the size depending upon the temperature and the amount of moisture in the atmosphere. Flakes are largest when the atmosphere is heavily charged with moisture and the temperature is just below the freezing point. The amount of water in snow is about one-tenth that in rain; that is, a snowfall of ten inches would be equivalent in water to a rainfall of one inch.

Snow is found in cool temperate regions in the winter, and it falls on the summits of high mountains and in the polar regions throughout the year. The heaviest snowfall is in mountains of the cool temperate regions, where it is several feet each winter, as in the Alps and in some portions of the Rocky Mountains, particularly in the State of Washington and in British Columbia. When frozen in great masses, this snow forms glaciers. The line of perpetual snow is known as the *snow line*, and its location depends upon altitude and latitude.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Avalanche	Ice
Crystallization	Rain
Freezing	Snow Line
Glacier	Snowshoe

SNOWBALL, or **GUELDER-ROSE**, *gerder*, a flowering shrub. It is a cultivated form of high-bush cranberry and grows from seven to twelve feet in height. Because of its large, white ball-like blossoms, it is known as the *snowball*. The name *Guelder-rose* is derived from the Dutch province of Guelderland, where the shrub is said to have originated. The flowers of the cultivated plant do not produce fruit; the wild guelder-rose, however, bears small, juicy, red berries.

SNOWBERRY, the popular name of a tropical American shrub which bears snow-white berries. The name is also applied to a native North American shrub of the woodbine family, which also has white berries.

SNOWBIRD, a name given to several finches that early in the spring go far north to nest, returning late in the fall. They gather in large flocks and feed in the snow on the seeds of grass and large plants. The *snowbunting*, often called the snowbird, is common in the northern United States and Canada. It has a gray back, white breast and black and white tail and wings, and is a very pretty bird.

SNOWDROP, a well-known garden plant, belonging to the amaryllis family. It bears a few short, straight, narrow, crisp leaves, and leafless flower stalks, on which are borne drooping, white, bell-shaped flowers, which appear early in spring. The plant is a native of the Alps, but is common in gardens in the Northern United States and Canada.

SNOW LINE, the height or level at which there is perpetual snow. In the tropics it is about three miles above the sea level, and mountains that rise to that height are always capped with snow; in latitude 40° it is about two miles above sea level; and at 55°, it is one mile above the sea. Above the Arctic Circle and below the Antarctic it descends to sea level.

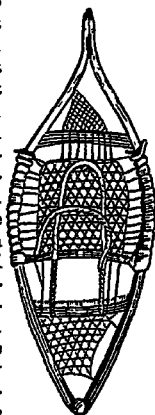
SNOWFLOW, a machine for clearing the snow from roads, sidewalks and railways. Such devices are usually triangular, and are hauled by horses. They push the snow to either side of the path and are useful when the snow does not reach a great depth, after which the accumulation of snow on the sides of the path renders their use somewhat difficult.

Snowplows used on railways are of two kinds—the triangular plow, which is attached to the front end of the locomotive or a special car and removes the snow by being forced

through it, and the rotary plow. The triangular plow differs from that used on ordinary roads in that the sides form an oblique edge, which points downward to the middle of the track. As the plow is forced through the snow it lifts it up and then throws it out on either side of the track.

The rotary plow consists of a large wheel, with buckets attached to an axis, that rotates at right angles to the rails. As the wheel revolves, the buckets scoop up the snow and empty it into a hopper, from which it is thrown to a great distance by a powerful fan. The rotary plow is operated by a special engine and is pushed along by a locomotive. Its effectiveness does not depend upon the speed with which it is moved forward, and it is successful in clearing the deepest of drifts. The danger of delaying traffic for hours or days because of snow depths has practically been overcome by the effectiveness of the modern snowplow.

SNOWSHOE, *sno'shoo*, a device attached to the sole of the shoe to prevent the wearer from sinking into deep snows. It consists of a light frame of wood from three to four feet long and about a foot wide, reinforced with cross bars and strung with thongs of deerskin. Snowshoes are used by hunters, trappers, loggers and farmers in regions where snowfall is heavy. In these shoes the half-breed Indian trappers of Canada, who are the most expert users of them, can run over the snow at the rate of thirty-five or forty miles a day. In all sections of country where snows are heavy, many people use snowshoes as a pleasant diversion; in many localities snowshoe clubs exist as a feature of outdoor sports.



SNOWSHOE

SNUFF, a powder made from the tobacco plant. The dry leaves and stems of the plant are ground in mortars and then scented. Snuff is inhaled through the nostrils, or is rubbed on the gums as an indulgence, like tobacco chewing. The practice of using it, once fashionable in Europe and America, is fast dying out. See **TOBACCO**.



SOAP, *sope*, a chemical compound of fat or oil, with some alkali, usually potash or soda. There are many varieties, but the soaps of commerce may be roughly classified as household soaps, toilet soaps, manufacturing soaps and marine soaps.

Manufacture. The fat used in common laundry, or household, soaps is tallow, which may be mixed with grease or oil, and is generally known as *stock*. In the course of the manufacturing process rosin is added. This gives the soap a yellow color and also aids in hardening it. The fat is poured in a melted state into large sheet-iron kettles, heated by steam coils. During the heating process lye is added from time to time, until the right proportions of fat and alkali are obtained. When the mixture has the appearance of thick gum, strong brine is added until the soap floats on the surface. As the mixture cools, the brine settles to the bottom of the kettle and is drawn off and worked for glycerine and salt. Fresh, strong lye and rosin are added to the soap, and the mixture is reheated and treated as before. Three operations of this sort are necessary before a soap of the desired grade is produced.

After the third heating cold water is added and the mixture is allowed to cool slowly to 150° F. Then the soap is run into a horizontal cylinder known as the *crutcher*, where it is thoroughly mixed by revolving paddles. During the mixing several ingredients are added, the most important being carbonate of soda. When thoroughly mixed the soap is run into large pans and allowed to harden. It is then cut into cakes by being passed between steel wires, and the cakes are stamped and wrapped ready for the market.

The manufacture of toilet soaps is similar to that already described, except that the *crutcher* is omitted. For the best grades of toilet soaps, olive oil, palm oil and cocoanut oil are used, and the process of refining is carried further than in the manufacture of laundry soaps. Coloring matter and perfume are added to some of the best soaps, but they are omitted from other grades equally good. Cheap, highly perfumed soaps

should be avoided, because the perfume is usually added to disguise the odor of offensive fats. A soap made of pure oil and good soda is the best for a healthy skin.

Cashile soap is made from olive oil and soda. *Marine* soap is made from cocoanut oil, potash, soda lye and salt; it will dissolve in salt water. The so-called, *naphtha* soaps contain kerosene and a very strong alkali. Manufacturers' soaps are known as *neutral*, because they contain no excess of alkali or fats. This is necessary since these soaps are used in cleansing raw material for delicate fabrics, such as silks and fine woolsens.

SOAPSTONE, or **STÆATITE**, a soft rock with a soapy feel, composed chiefly of talc and ranging in color from light to dark gray. It is easily sawed into any desired shape. Blocks of the stone are used as foot-warmers, because they hold the heat a long time. Powdered soapstone is sometimes used to prevent friction in machinery, and a soft, white variety is used as tailors' chalk.

SOCIAL DEMOCRATS, the name of a political party established in Germany in 1863 under the influence of Ferdinand Lassalle. It began with a small membership and a simple program based on universal and equal suffrage. In 1875 the followers of Lassalle joined with those of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels to form the party which became the nucleus of the leading political organization in the Germany of that day. At the outbreak of the World War the Social Democrats commanded 4,500,000 votes, and were represented in the Reichstag, where they held the balance of power by over a hundred members.

The war caused a division in the ranks, and the party split into two factions—majority Socialists and minority Socialists. The former, led by such men as Philipp Scheidemann and Friedrich Ebert, supported the government and voted war credits; the minority Socialists, who organized under the name of Independent Social Democrats, demanded immediate peace, and preached international Socialism and class conflict. When the German emperor abdicated, in November, 1918, the majority Socialists organized the provisional government, and in the ensuing elections, in February, 1919, they secured control of the National Assembly. Friedrich Ebert was elected President of Germany, and Scheidemann became head of the Cabinet.

The following are the most important planks in the platform of the Social Democratic party, as formerly organized:

1. Universal, equal and direct suffrage by ballot in all elections
2. Establishing the initiative and veto as means of direct legislation by the people
3. Removal of all restrictions to the free expression of opinion and the right of meeting or association.
4. Abolition of all laws which place woman at a disadvantage as compared with man
5. Universal education at the expense of the state
6. Election of judges by the people
7. A graduated income and property tax to meet all public expenses which are to be met by taxation. See GERMANY, SOCIALISM

SOCIALISM, the name of an economic system by which all wealth produced is demanded as the property of individual workers, with the means of production the property of the community or the state. In other words, socialism seeks a change of attitude towards property. The world's work is carried on under the domination of private property, except in Russia. Socialism would reverse this process, so that the world's work would be dominated by public property. Socialists attribute all value to labor, and in the beginning they so emphasized manual labor that intellectual services were given little or no consideration. However, with the rise of a better class of thinkers this view was changed, and socialists of moderate views now understand that intellectual service is as necessary as manual labor.

Socialists argue that, since production is becoming more and more a social process, the control of production should be in the hands of the community or the state. They demand collective management of each industry and that all industries be associated together in order to secure a perfect system, with harmony and unity of effort. They claim that each individual producer acts for himself, that the present industrial system is planless and that it causes industrial crises and business stagnation. Furthermore, if organized society owns the instruments of production and controls production, it would necessarily follow that the distribution of income would have to be by some common authority and that under this plan each worker would be assured of a living wage.

What Socialism is Not. The term *socialism* has been very loosely applied to a number of economic and political doctrines of a revolutionary character.

Socialism is not Communism. Communism advocates the abolishment of all private property, while socialism advocates the retention of private property in income or earnings, and the abolishment of private capital. The Bolshevik movement in Russia was an attempt to apply communistic principles on a large scale (see RUSSIA; BOLSHEVIKI).

Socialism is not Anarchism. Both seek the same end, the largest freedom of the individual and general equality among men, but they seek this end by opposite means. Anarchism (which see) would abolish all government, while socialism would extend the powers of the state and make government paternal. Anarchism would gain its ends by violence wherever such means seemed to be advantageous, but sane socialism seeks to gain its ends by political evolution. Persuasion and the ballot are its two greatest agencies. "The socialist to-day is the strongest opponent of anarchism."

Political Socialism. Socialism is a world movement. Politically it is "socialism plus democracy." While there is a Socialist party in nearly every country, socialism has gained its greatest strength in Germany, where it first acquired political significance. There are strong Socialist parties in France, Holland, Italy and the Scandinavian countries. International socialistic congresses were held annually from 1889 to the outbreak of the World War, and in 1900 the International Bureau of Socialism was established at Brussels, Belgium. It consisted of forty-one delegates from twenty-seven nations. After the war there was almost immediate resumption of international conferences.

In the United States. The evolution of socialism in America as a party movement has been rapid, as is shown by the Socialist vote at Presidential elections since the party entered the field. In 1888 it was 2,068; in 1904, 442,402; in 1912, about 1,000,000; but in 1916 it fell to 594,095. In 1932 the party polled 881,951 votes. Membership in the party is not confined to the cities, there is a large following in the agricultural states. See **POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE UNITED STATES**, subhead **Socialist Party**.

Socialism and the World War. The Socialist party is international in scope; its adherents are opposed to war, and it was thought at the outbreak of the World War that the Socialists, regardless of nationality, would unite in opposition to the war, and

put forth a strong plea for peace. On the contrary, the majority of the Socialists of all the belligerent countries adhered to their respective governments, and the chief effect of the war upon the party was to cause a division in its ranks and temporarily to break up the international organization. Adherents of the more radical wing maintained a strenuous opposition to the war, especially in Germany, where they boldly opposed the government, and declared that the war was not a war for defense. This caused a division in the party (see **SOCIAL DEMOCRATS, GERMANY**). In the United States the anti-war Socialists gained control of the organization when the country entered the World War, and many who supported the war left the party.

History. The beginning of the socialistic movement is considered to date from the organization in England of the *Association of All Classes of All Nations* in 1833. The term socialism was used in connection with the organization in a magazine called the *Poor Man's Guardian*, and it soon came into general use. The founders of modern socialism were Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, who in 1845 organized in Brussels the *German Workingmen's Association*. Here they wrote the *Communists' Manifesto*, which summarized the philosophy of socialism and has since formed the basis of many socialist platforms. At first, socialism, like other new movements, was misunderstood and misjudged, but since the beginning of the twentieth century there is a clearer view. Since 1918 socialist parties have become well organized in many of the countries of Europe, but have not achieved their goal in any. They are also strong in Australia and most of the countries of South America.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

GENERAL

Anarchism	Mothers' Pensions
Child Labor	Old Age Pensions
Communism	Recall
Convict Labor	Referendum
Income Tax	Sabotage
Inheritance Tax	Suffrage
Initiative	Syndicalism
Labor, Department of	Vocational Training
Minimum Wage	

EMINENT SOCIALISTS

Bebel, Ferdinand	Marx, Karl
August	Friedrich, Pierre
Lassalle, Ferdinand	Joseph

SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS, the name given to those houses, or centers, in the poorest districts of great cities, where cultured men and women live, in order to come in con-

tact with, and improve the condition of, the poorer classes. The activities of these societies include efforts at the development of the physical, mental, moral, spiritual and social interests of the poor. The oldest and most famous of the social settlements is Toynbee Hall in London, founded in 1884 and named in honor of Arnold Toynbee, who had taken the first steps toward its organization.

The earliest attempts at founding a settlement in the United States were made in 1887 by Dr. Stanton Coit, who established the Neighborhood Guild in New York. This developed into the University Settlement, which is one of the most efficient organizations of its kind in America. Two years after this settlement was established, Jane Addams and Ellen Gates Starr opened Hull House in Chicago, perhaps the most famous social settlement in the world. To-day there are social settlements in every large city in the United States, and their influence is potent in the development of civic affairs.

The scope of the work is almost unlimited. Nearly all maintain kindergartens, day nurseries, baths, libraries, schools of citizenship, clubs and savings banks, and give instruction at night in public-school subjects to day laborers whose education has been neglected. Social, political and religious meetings may be held in the settlement halls, and proper guidance, supervision and restraint are exercised by the resident workers. The social settlement is one of the most powerful influences at work to-day for the betterment of mankind. A detailed account of the workings of a large settlement is given in Miss Jane Addams' *Twenty Years at Hull House*. See ADDAMS, JANE.

SOCIETY ISLANDS, or TAHITI, tah' heta, ARCHIPELAGO, a French colonial possession in the Southern Pacific Ocean, consisting of two groups of islands, eleven in number, and embracing a total area of 637 square miles. The first group, the Leeward Islands, include Huahame, Raiston, Tahao and Bora Bora. Of the Windward group Tahiti and Moorea are the important islands. The islands are of volcanic origin, are mountainous and surrounded by coral reefs. They are densely wooded, and coconuts, bananas, sugar cane, oranges and other tropical fruits are cultivated. The climate is mild and moist, but healthful. The population is about 18,000, chiefly Malay.

SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO ANIMALS, the name given to various organizations whose chief purpose is to secure humane treatment for animals. The first society was organized in England in 1824. Interest in the movement spread, and in 1866 the first American society was organized, in New York. There are to-day such societies in all parts of the world. Through their influence important legislation has been enacted for the protection of domestic animals. Some of the laws are excellent. In many countries railroads are required to unload every twenty-four hours, to feed, rest and water, all stock which is being shipped great distances; and in nearly all countries cruelty to an animal is punishable with fine or imprisonment, or both.

SOCIETY OF JESUS, a Roman Catholic Order. See JESUITS.

SOCIOLOGY, *so she o' o' ji*, a science devoted to the study of society, including the fundamental facts upon which it is based, the history of modern societies, and the description and classification of present social phenomena. It thus covers in its broadest sense the study of the general progress of civilization, including history, economics, jurisprudence and politics. Sociology is based, of necessity, largely upon statistics, and its conclusions are arrived at through an historical and psychological study of the individuals who compose society and of the movements which in the past have affected its form and nature.

To Auguste Comte we are indebted for his conception of a comprehensive social science; he also gave to the study the name *sociology*. Its formal study is generally divided into four classes, each with corresponding divisions and subdivisions: *descriptive sociology*, *social psychology*, *social ethics*, and *social technology*.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Capital Punishment	Juvenile Court
Census	Labor Organizations
Charity	Marriage
Child Labor	Monopoly
Communism	Mothers' Pensions
Convict Labor	Old Age Pensions
Coöperation	Pauperism
Crime and Criminology	Population
Economics	Prison
Environment	Prohibition
Eugenics	Social Settlements
Factory and Factory Legislation	Socialism
George Junior Republic	Statistics
Hereditry	Suicide
Illiteracy	Tenement
Immigration and Emigration	Trusts
	Woman Suffrage

SOCRATES, *sok'ra-tees* (469-399 B. C.), one of the greatest philosophers of Greece. He was born at Athens, and, while his education was meager, so great was the inquisitiveness of his mind that he picked up the best thought current in the highly cultivated Athenian society of his day. From his father he learned the sculptor's art, but soon abandoned it and began to go about the streets of Athens questioning those he met on the eternal problems of human life.

For several years he fought as a common soldier. After that he devoted himself entirely to philosophy and the education of the youth of his native city, hoping thereby to make more useful citizens and a more firmly established and morally sound state. By means of conversation, which was simple, yet brilliant, he so illuminated commonplace facts that the great truths underlying them became apparent.

Because of his pure morality, honesty and interest in all mankind, Socrates was highly esteemed by the greatest thinkers of his day, and among his illustrious friends were Plato, Crito, Alcibiades, Xenophon, Aristippus, Euclid of Megara and Phaedon. Yet he was hated by those who opposed his just ideas of government and was accused of corrupting the youth of the state with heretical religious views. He was tried before a court of citizen jurors and in 399 B. C. was sentenced to death. His death potion was a cup of hemlock, drunk at twilight in the prison yard in the presence of his friends Plato and Crito. Of him Plato said, "Thus died the man who of all with whom we are acquainted was in death the noblest, in life the wisest and most just."

Socrates made no attempt to formulate a system of philosophy, nor to commit his ideas to writing. What we know of his doctrines is learned from Xenophon's *Memorabilia* and Plato's *Dialogues*. The great influence which he wielded is largely due to the fact that his ideas were made practical in his life. He was governed always by his high sense of virtue and obeyed conscientiously the promptings of an inner voice, which he declared to be a never-failing counselor. He attained to an intellectual strength and a spiritual peace that gave him a place almost alone among the world's greatest thinkers.

SODA, in general, the name of several compounds of sodium found in nature; in particular, several manufactured products of

sodium chloride, or common salt. These include *sodium carbonate* (which may be produced in crystallized lumps or a coarse powder called *soda ash*), used in making glass and soap, for disinfecting and cleaning; and *sodium bicarbonate*, which is cooking soda. This latter is a constituent of baking powder and also of Seidlitz powders. Sodium hydroxide, commonly called *caustic soda*, is used in the manufacture of soap, dyestuffs and paper, and in bleaching and kerosene-oil refining.

SODA WATER, a popular summer beverage, especially in the United States. It is made of water charged with carbon dioxide and fruit flavoring. It contains no soda; it is called soda water because bicarbonate of soda was formerly used in making it. The liquid carbon dioxide is stored in a steel container under heavy pressure; when released by means of a faucet it permeates the water as carbonic acid gas, causing it to effervesce and imparting to it a pungent taste.

Pop, ginger ale and other similar drinks consist of water flavored with various extracts and charged with carbonic acid gas, which is kept under pressure in the bottle. When the cork is removed the gas escapes rapidly and causes the effervescence.

SODIUM, a metallic element discovered by Sir Humphry Davy in 1807. It is silver-white, has a very high luster and is as soft as wax. It is lighter than water, and if thrown on warm water its affinity for oxygen generates enough additional heat to cause ignition of the hydrogen. In contact with cold water the warmth generated is sufficient to melt the sodium. Owing to its affinity for oxygen it has to be kept in liquids that contain no oxygen, such as kerosene. When heated in air or oxygen it burns with a very pure and intense yellow flame. It is perhaps more abundant than any other metal, for it constitutes two-fifths of all the salt existing in sea water and is present in the water of springs, rivers and lakes, in almost all soils and in the deposits of rock salt. Sodium is also contained in sea plants and in land plants growing near the sea. It occurs, also, in most animal fluids.

Sodium is used as an agent in the manufacture of aluminum and magnesium, and as a reagent in chemical operations. Common salt is a compound of sodium and chlorine (see **SALT**). Sodium also occurs as oxide of sodium in a good many minerals;

but it is most common in the form of carbonate, nitrate and borate of soda. Of the numerous salts of sodium, many are important medicinal agents. *Sodium arsenate* is used as a substitute for arsenic and is an important element in fly poisons; *sodium bromide* and *sodium iodide* are prescribed for quieting the nerves; *sodium bicarbonate* is one of the important ingredients of baking powder. See **SALTPETER**, **WATER GLASS**

SOD'OM, one of the five cities situated in the plain of the Jordan River, and referred to in the thirteenth and fourteenth chapters of *Genesis*. It was in Sodom that Lot settled when he separated from Abraham. The city was plundered by Chedorlaomer and was afterwards rescued by Abraham. According to Biblical accounts, thus and three other cities—one of them Gomorrah—in the vicinity were destroyed in a miraculous way because of their wickedness. It was at this destruction that Lot and his two daughters were spared, while his wife, not obeying the divine command, was turned into a pillar of salt (*Gen XIX*, 23-30). The exact location of Sodom is unknown, and authorities differ in regard to it, some believing it to have been at the north end of the Dead Sea and others at the south end.

SODOM, **APPLE OF**, a fruit mentioned by early writers as growing on the shores of the Dead Sea. It was beautiful to the eye, but when eaten it filled the mouth with ashes. Although no satisfactory explanation has ever been given, it is supposed by some that this "apple" was a gall produced on dwarf oaks by an insect.

SOFIA, or **SOPHIA**, *saw'fe ya*, **BULGARIA**, its capital and largest city, situated in a plain on an elevation of 1,800 feet above sea level, near the Balkan Mountains, 325 miles north-northwest of Constantinople. It is on the line of railway that after Bulgaria's entrance into the World War was opened from Berlin to Constantinople. Sofia is built on modern plans and has broad, straight streets. The important buildings are the old mosque of Sofia, ruins of which still remain; the Mosque of Buyuk-Jami, used as a museum; the palace of the prince, and the government buildings. The city is the seat of a university founded in 1888. The chief industries include the manufacture of silk and other textiles, and of pottery. Sofia occupies the site of ancient Sardica, and in 1878, since which time the modern part of the city has

been rebuilt, it became the capital of Bulgaria. The city was bombarded by allied airships during the World War. Population, 1935, 287,976

SOIL, that part of the earth upon which we depend for everything we eat and wear, and upon which all animals and plants depend for their sustenance. But this is not what the geologist or the agriculturist calls the soil. To the former the soil is the loose layer on the surface of the earth's crust; to the latter it is that portion of this layer in which plants grow and which is suitable for tillage.

Formation of Soil. The process of forming soil has been in operation since the first solid masses of the earth's surface appeared, and the same agencies which began its formation at that time are still at work and are producing the same results. These agencies are the atmosphere, water, plants and animals, and are explained below.

The atmosphere aids in the formation of soil by mechanical and chemical action—by mechanical action, when strong currents of wind wear away rock in certain localities and deposit the particles in others, by chemical action, when under conditions of moisture the oxygen of the air takes certain substances of which the rock is composed and destroys them, thus causing the rock to crumble.

Water is the most powerful agent in the formation of soil, since it does more than all other agencies in decomposing rocks. It decomposes rocks by wearing them away, as in the case of water in streams, and by breaking up rocks into particles as a result of freezing. At the foot of all cliffs masses of rock fragments are found. These are formed by the water's entering crevices in the rock and freezing and breaking the particles off. These particles are in turn broken up by weathering and by similar action of the water. Water also acts chemically, since oxygen readily attacks substances which the water dissolves from the rock. The combined action of water and atmosphere is known as weathering, and thus is by far the most important process in the formation of soil.

Plants contribute to the formation of soil by the decay of roots, leaves and stubble, and frequently by the decay of the entire plant. The roots also assist in breaking up rocks by growing in crevices; and the absorption of nutriment by the plant also decomposes rocks to a limited extent.

Animals contribute to the formation and enrichment of soil by their excrement, by the decay of their carcasses and by burrowing. A good illustration of this is found in the earthworm, which bores its hole by passing the soil through its body. During this process the soil is pulverized and enriched. The holes thus made allow the air to enter the soil, and in this way a fresh supply for soil breathing is furnished (see *EARTH WORM*). Thousands of insects make the soil their home, and in numerous ways they contribute to its fineness and fertility.

Kinds of Soils. The composition of soil depends upon that of the rock from which it was formed. When the soil overlies the decomposing rock, it is usually of the same nature, but along river beds and in localities which are the beds of ancient lakes, the soil may be of entirely different composition from that of the surrounding rock, since it was transported a long distance by water. A *sandy* soil is one whose composition is nearly three-fourths sand. A *clayey* soil is about half clay, while a *lime* soil is about one-fifth lime. A *peaty* or vegetable soil is made up of peat or vegetable matter. *Loams* are soils containing a mixture of clay, sand, lime and decayed vegetable matter, known as *humus*.

Soil Water. All soil contains water, the amount depending upon the condition of the country in regard to rainfall, and the nature of the soil itself. In soils most suitable for tillage the water exists in the form of a thin film around each minute particle of soil, similar to the film formed around a marble when it is dipped in water. Soils containing clay retain the water much longer than those composed principally of sand or gravel. When too much water is present it gathers in excavations made in the soil and is known as *free water*. The presence of free water is injurious to growing crops, since it drowns the roots and prevents their obtaining the necessary amount of nourishment.

Value. The soil is the great storehouse of wealth, not only for the farmer, but for all others as well. A fertile soil is the first requisite to successful agriculture. Soil is considered fertile when it contains an abundance of plant food in such state that the plants can appropriate it as needed. The chief ingredients of this food are nitrogen, potash and phosphorus, which occurs in the form of phosphates. The nitrogen is ob-

tained from the decomposition of organic matter which constitutes that portion of the soil known as *humus*. Potash and phosphorus exist in the mineral portions of the soil, which must be chemically decomposed before these substances can be used by the plant. Many soils, rich in potash and phosphorus, or both, are unavailable because these substances are not in a state to make them available for plant food. On such soils the sort of fertilizer needed is some ingredient that will decompose the rock particles which hold the potash and phosphorus in insoluble form.

Soil Analysis. Before the farmer can obtain the best results from his labors, he must understand thoroughly the condition of his soil; that is, he should know the plant foods it contains and the relative proportion of each. Also, he should know whether or not each of these foods is in such a state that it is available for the plants. So important is this knowledge that the agricultural colleges are making soil surveys throughout their respective states, and the United States Department of Agriculture is doing a similar work for the tillable portions of the public lands.

Any farmer wishing to know the chemical constituents of his soil should write to the agricultural college of his state. If the soil in the vicinity of his farm has been surveyed, he will obtain the desired information. If it has not been surveyed, he will be told what steps to take to secure the analysis. In general, the funds of these colleges do not enable them to analyze soil for individual farmers. The college will, however, refer the farmer to some chemist who will make the analysis for him. The fee is usually ten dollars, but if the knowledge gained enables the farmer to produce more bountiful crops, or to render fertile what the farmer supposed to be worthless soil, the money is very wisely invested. Analysis of the soil of many so-called worn-out farms shows that right methods of treatment will in a few years make them as productive as ever. The best authorities state that the first 16 inches of soil contain an average of 7,122 pounds of nitrogen, 6,035 pounds of phosphoric acid and 23,160 pounds of potash to the acre. Fertilizing the soil means setting these ingredients free as frequently as it means supplying them.

How to Study Soil. First determine whether or not the soil has been formed

chiefly from the underlying rock. If it has, it is of the same composition as the rock, with the addition of humus. If the soil is alluvium, that is, soil has been deposited by water which overflowed the land, its composition will be very different from that of the soil upon higher levels in the same locality. Moreover, alluvium contains a large proportion of humus.

To determine the texture of soil, dry a quantity, then break it into fine particles. If it is lumpy and pulverizes with difficulty, it contains a good proportion of clay. If more than one-half of it is clay, it is known as clayey soil. If about three-fourths of it is sand, it is a sandy soil. If one-fifth of it is lime, it is a limy soil. A soil containing a mixture of sand and clay is loamy.

A perfect soil contains these various ingredients in suitable proportion. It must have sufficient sand to enable it to absorb the requisite quantity of air and moisture, and to render it warm and friable. It must have sufficient clay to prevent too rapid leaching or evaporation of water, sufficient lime to aid in the decay of vegetable matter and enough humus to enable it to retain the best amount of moisture and to furnish the necessary material for the chemical changes necessary to healthy plant growth.

Soil Conservation. Even the most fertile soil will deteriorate if the same crop is raised on it year after year, because the peculiar soil properties demanded by that crop become exhausted (see **ROTATION OF CROPS**). Continued severe droughts cause soil deterioration and destruction of farming lands. In 1934, '35, and '36 many great areas of the central western portion of the United States suffered almost unparalleled dryness, and in 1934 winds carried dust storms as far as the Atlantic seaboard. The Federal government took note of the catastrophic situation and went to the relief of farmers in these regions in a number of ways. Hundreds of families were moved to more fertile locations; others were assisted in planting a diversification of crops suitable to more than average dryness of soil.

Government agencies encouraged the tendency to change to soil-improving crops by benefit payments to cover losses incurred in such transition, or payments to permit land to lie idle temporarily. Numerous erosion experiment stations were established to study all phases of soil productivity. Engineering

methods were called into service to decrease soil erosion, and emergency-works programs were employed to stop the formation of gulches which wash soil away. Scientific study was intensified to learn more about soil needs for cotton, cane, potatoes, and a variety of other products.

[The above government activities had no relation to other projects by which the farming community was paid benefits for voluntarily reducing crop acreage in order to curb over-production, bring about a degree of scarcity, and raise prices.]

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Alluvium	Humus
Agriculture	Loam
Clay	Loess
Drainage	Manures
Dry Farming	Marl
Erosion	Phosphates
Fertilizer	Rotation of Crops
Irrigation	Sand

SOISSONS, *swa son'*, FRANCE, the capital of an arrondissement in the department of the Aisne, sixty-five miles northeast of Paris. It is one of the oldest towns in France and was the scene, in 486, of the victory by Clovis over the Roman general, Syagrius, which put an end to Roman dominion in Gaul. The cathedral of Notre Dame and the town hall, with a library and museum, are the principal buildings. Soissons was in the battle zone of the World War, and suffered severely from bombardments. Population, 14,000 (1931).

SOKOTO, *so ko'toh*, one of the northern provinces of the British colony and protectorate of Nigeria, in Northern Africa. It has an area of 39,000 square miles and a population of 1,650,000. The land along its northern border, which meets the Sahara Desert, is arid and unproductive. In the south, where there are fertile farming and pasture lands, agriculture and cattle raising are the principal industries, and barley, millet, wheat and hides the chief products.

SOLANUM, a genus of the nightshade family, containing a wide variety of both useful and nonuseful plants. Among the former are the potato, the tomato and the eggplant. The horse nettle and buffalo bur, spiny weeds that give considerable trouble to farmers, belong to the nonuseful group. The bitter-sweet, another species, is the source of a fluid of medicinal value, and the common nightshade, or belladonna, is also medicinal.

SOLAR MICROSCOPE, an instrument by means of which a magnified image of a small object is projected on a screen, by sunlight

or strong artificial light It is much like a stereopticon The object to be magnified is placed on a stand at one end of a brass tube By means of a mirror, rays of light are reflected into the opposite end of the tube; a double-convex lens brings the light rays to focus on the object, while another lens projects a magnified image on the screen.

SOLAR SPECTRUM. See **LIGHT**, sub-head *Spectrum*; **SPECTRUM ANALYSIS**.

SOLAR SYSTEM, in astronomy, the name given to the group of celestial bodies, including the sun and its attendants, which revolve about it in elliptical orbits. To this system belong the nine great planets and their satellites, the asteroids lying beyond Mars, comets and meteorites.

The size of the great solar system is utterly beyond comprehension Herschel's illustration was that if the earth were represented by a pea, the sun would be a ball two feet in diameter, 327 feet away on one side, and Neptune a plum a mile and a quarter away on the other.

Related Articles: Consult the following titles for additional information:

Astronomy	Gravitation	Planetoid
Asteroids	Meteor	Satellite
Comet	Planet (with Sun list)	

SOLDERS, *sod'urz*, alloys used in joining the surfaces or edges of metals by fusion at the point of contact The solder should always fuse more easily than the metal intended to be soldered by it. Solders are of two kinds, hard and soft.

The *hard solders* are ductile, will bear hammering and are commonly prepared of the same metal as that which is to be soldered, with the addition of some other, by which a greater degree of fusibility is obtained Under this head comes the hard solder for gold, which is prepared from gold and silver, or from gold and copper, or from gold, silver and copper. The hard solder for silver is prepared from equal parts of silver and brass, but it is made to fuse more easily by the mixture of one-sixteenth of zinc The hard solder for brass is obtained from brass mixed with a sixth or an eighth, or even a half, of zinc, and this may also be used for the hard solder of copper.

Soft solders melt easily, but as they are partly brittle, they cannot be hammered. Of this kind are the following mixtures Tin and lead in equal parts; bismuth, tin and lead in equal parts, bismuth, two parts, tin and lead, each one part.

SOLDIERS' BONUS. The United States has always given its soldiers compensation greater than that provided by any other country There is general agreement that the pay of private soldiers is inadequate, but to provide larger sums for millions of men while in service is manifestly impossible.

In the World War private soldiers were paid \$30 per month When the war was over, in lieu of a general pension system for survivors, and to make the rate of pay more adequate, the government perfected a bonus system which was given the name "adjusted compensation" This adjusted compensation was figured at \$1 per day for those whose service was at home and \$1.25 per day for overseas service, up to 500 days, less 60 days, for each soldier was given \$60 upon his discharge, in addition to his regular pay The additional compensation thus offered, totaling much more than \$2,000,000,000, could not be paid at once, but the government pledged payment in full, with interest, in 1945.

Within a few years the soldiers began agitation for immediate cash payment, and without deduction, the demand was resisted, on the government's pleas that a contract existed for future payment and that the Treasury could not finance the vast amount sooner than the due date Pressure continued and became so strong that Congress, in 1935, ordered immediate payment of the face value of the 1945 claims, and through bond issues the veterans received their payments in full during 1936, nine years ahead of the agreed date

SOLDIERS' HOMES, homes for disabled or aged soldiers of the United States armies, divided into two general classes. those administered and maintained by the Federal government and those administered and partly maintained by state governments

Home for Regular Army Soldiers. The United States maintains a home for disabled and discharged soldiers of the regular army at Washington, D C, known as the United States Soldiers' Home All soldiers who have served twenty years in the army and those who have incurred such disability as to disqualify them for further service are admitted

Home for Volunteer Soldiers. Another federal institution is the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, which is subdivided into ten branches in the following cities of the United States

Dayton, Ohio
Milwaukee, Wis.
Togus, Me
Danville, Ill.
Hampton, Va.

Leavenworth, Kan
Santa Monica, Cal.
Marion, Ind
Jackson City, Tenn
Hot Springs, S. D.

Confederate veterans of the Civil War have a home at Beauvoir, near Biloxi, Miss., the former estate of Jefferson Davis.

State Soldiers' Homes. There are a number of state homes for disabled soldiers who for various reasons are unable to secure admission to the national institution. The Federal government contributes toward the support of the state homes \$100 for each soldier, based upon the average attendance for the year. The remainder of the expense is paid by the individual state. Some of these homes are conducted on the cottage plan. The following is a list of the state homes:

California—Yountville	Nebraska—Gd Island
Colorado—Monte Vista	New Hampshire—Tilton
Connecticut—Noroton Heights	New Jersey—Kearny and Vineland
Idaho—Boise	New York—Bath and Oxford
Illinois—Quincy	North Dakota—Lisbon
Indiana—Lafayette	Ohio—Sandusky
Iowa—Marshalltown	Oregon—Roseburg
Kansas—Fort Dodge	Pennsylvania—Erie
Massachusetts—Chelsea	Rhode Island—Bristol
Michigan—Grand Rapids	So Dakota—Hot Springs
Minnesota—Minnehaha	Vermont—Bennington
Missouri—Saint James	Washington—Orting and Port Orchard
Montana—Columbus Falls	Wisconsin—Waupeca
	Wyoming—Cheyenne

SOLE, a broad, flat fish with a dorsal fin extending from head to tail. The common European sole, a brown fish with very white, firm flesh, is much esteemed for the table. The average length is about twelve inches, and the weight is eighteen ounces. These fishes live most of the time in shallow waters of sandy coasts; sometimes they ascend rivers in the spawning season, and they retire to the depths of the ocean in cold weather. They are sometimes caught with lines, but usually with trawl-nets. The American sole, or *hogchoker*, common on the Atlantic coast, is a smaller fish, only about six inches long, and is not much used for food. The transparent sole of the Pacific coast differs from most other species in having no fins on the under side.

SOLEMN LEAGUE AND COVENANT.

See COVENANT.

SOLICITOR, *so lis'it or*, a person authorized by law to represent another in court of

justice. In the United States the distinction between solicitors and other lawyers is not recognized. Under the laws of Great Britain solicitors constitute a class of attorneys who are officers of the court, the go-betweens of the barristers; the latter act as advocates in the argument and conduct of cases. A solicitor may appear before a magistrate in the lower courts, but cannot appear as an advocate in a superior court.

SOLID. In geometry this term signifies a magnitude which has the three dimensions of length, breadth and thickness. In physics a solid is a body having a definite shape and thus differing from liquid and gaseous bodies, which conform to the shape of the space containing them.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
Arithmetic Cylinder Prism
Cone Geometry Pyramid
Cube Mensuration Sphere
Cubic Measure

SOLITAIRE, *sol'itair'*, any card game played by one person. The player shuffles the pack, from which certain cards may have been eliminated, then plays the cards, one at a time, holding the pack face downward. The object is to arrange the cards in suits, building up or down according to certain rules. Most games of solitaire depend for their working out solely on the run of the cards not on any skill of the player.

SOL'OMON (the Prince of Peace), the third king of Israel, was the son of David and Bathsheba. He was born in Jerusalem and was chosen by David to succeed to the throne, instead of his elder brothers. He was about twenty years old when he came to the throne and ruled nearly sixty years, until 931 B. C.

By his remarkable judicial decisions and his completion of the political institutions of David, Solomon gained the respect and admiration of his people; while by the building of the Temple, which gave to the Hebrew worship a magnificence it had not possessed, he bound the nation still more strongly to his throne. The wealth of Solomon, accumulated by a prudent use of the treasures inherited from his father, by successful commerce, by a careful administration of the royal revenues and by an increase of taxes, enabled him to meet the expense of building palaces, cities and fortifications, and of supporting a luxurious court. Fortune long seemed to favor this great king; and Israel, in the fullness of its prosperity, scarcely perceived that he was

continually becoming more despotic. Contrary to the laws of Moses, he admitted foreign women into his harem; and in his old age permitted the free practice of their idolatrous worship and even took part in it himself. Toward the close of his reign troubles arose in consequence of these dehnquencies, and the growing discontent, coming to a head after his death, resulted in a division of the kingdom.

The wisdom of Solomon is proverbial. He knew human nature and possessed a store of facts not known by any other man of his time. According to the Bible, he spoke "three thousand proverbs and his songs were a thousand and five." Of these only the poem known as *The Song of Solomon* and the proverbs contained in the Biblical book of *Proverbs* are known to-day, and the authorship of these is a matter of controversy. See *SOLOMON'S SONG*.

SOLOMON ISLANDS, a group of islands in the Western Pacific Ocean, lying southeast of Bismarck Archipelago, east of New Guinea and between New Britain and New Hebrides. The larger islands are of volcanic origin, and most of the smaller ones are of coral. Their total area is about 16,950 square miles. The climate is hot and unhealthy, earthquakes are frequent, and there are several active volcanoes. The population is estimated to be 180,000, nearly all of whom are Malays and Papuan negroes. Most of the islands are controlled by Great Britain.

SOLOMON'S SONG (called also the *Song of Songs*, or *Canticles*), one of the canonical books of the Old Testament. From the earliest period this book has been the subject of much controversy. It seems to have been a recognized part of the Jewish canon in the time of Jesus. Till the beginning of the present century the author of the book was almost universally believed to be Solomon, but modern critics attribute it to an author of Northern Israel, who wrote it about the middle of the tenth century B. C., shortly after the death of Solomon, in a spirit of protest against the corrupt splendor of the court of Zion. By the Jews it has been regarded as a spiritual allegory, embodying the union of God and Israel; by Christian theologians it has been regarded as symbolizing the relationship of Christ and the Church.

SOLON (638?-558? B. C.), one of the seven wise men of Greece, and the first great legislator of Athens. At the risk of his life

he urged the Athenians to recover Salamis. He was made chief archon in 594 B. C., and was invested with unlimited powers. He established a new constitution, divided the citizens according to their wealth and added to the powers of the popular assembly. He made many laws relating to trade and commerce, and he either entirely abrogated all debts or so reduced them that they were not burdensome to the debtors, abolishing the law which gave a creditor power to reduce his debtor to slavery. When he had completed his laws he bound the Athenians by oath not to make any changes in his code for ten years. He then left the country, to avoid being obliged to make any alteration in them, and visited Egypt, Cyprus and other places. Returning after an absence of ten years, he found the state torn by the old party hate; but all parties agreed to submit their demands to his decision. It soon became evident, however, that Pisistratus would succeed in gaining the chief power, and Solon left Athens. Though Athens now fell under the despotic rule of Pisistratus, much of Solon's legislation remained effective. See *GREECE*, subhead *History*; *ATHENS*, subhead *History*.

SOLSTICE, *sol'stus*, in astronomy, the point in the ecliptic at the greatest distance from the equator, at which the sun appears to stop or cease to recede from the equator, either north in summer or south in winter. There are two solstices—the summer solstice, the first degree of Cancer, which the sun reaches about the 21st of June, and the winter solstice, the first degree of Capricorn, where the sun is about the 22d of December. The time at which the sun is at either of these points also receives the same name.

SOLUTION, the transformation of matter from either the solid or the gaseous state to the liquid state, by means of a liquid called the *solvent*, or *menstruum*. When a liquid adheres to a solid with sufficient force to overcome its cohesion, the solid is said to undergo solution, or to become dissolved. Thus, sugar or salt may be brought into solution by water, camphor or resin, by spirit of wine; silver or lead, by mercury. Solution is facilitated by increasing the extent of the surface exposed to the solvent, which may be most easily done by reducing it to powder. Heat, by diminishing cohesion, usually favors solution; but there are exceptions to this rule, as water just above the freezing point will dissolve nearly twice as much lime as it dissolves at

the boiling point. If a solid body be introduced in successive small portions into a definite quantity of a liquid capable of dissolving it, the first portions disappear most rapidly, and each succeeding portion dissolves less rapidly than its predecessor, until solution altogether ceases. In such cases the forces of adhesion and cohesion balance each other, and the liquid is said to be *saturated*.

SOLWAY FIRTH, *furth*, an arm of the Irish Sea, between Scotland and Cumberland County, England. Throughout its length of fifty miles it is shallow, ebb tide leaving much of its coastal bed dry. The spring tide enters the firth in a bore six feet high and at the rate of ten miles an hour. Salmon and other fish are abundant, and fishing is an important industry. The principal ports on its shores are Whitehaven, Harrington and Kirkcudbright. The rivers flowing into it are the Esk, the Derwent, the Dee, the Nith and the Annan.

SOLYMAN I, or **SULEIMAN I**, or **SOLIMAN I**, *soo' lay mah'n*, surnamed the *Magnificent* (about 1495-1566), sultan of the Turkish Empire, the son of Selim I, whom he succeeded in 1520. Having put down a revolt which occurred in Syria and Egypt and having concluded an armistice with Persia, he besieged and took Belgrade in 1521. The next year he captured the island of Rhodes, which had been in the possession of the Knights of Saint John for over two hundred years. Turning his arms against Hungary, he won the Battle of Mohacs and captured Buda and Pesth. In 1529 he advanced on Vienna, but was forced to raise the siege, with great loss. His armies next gained considerable territories from Persia. In 1541 he overran a great part of Hungary, but an armistice was concluded in 1547. Late in his reign he attempted the capture of Malta and began another war against Hungary, but died in the midst of his plans. He was an enlightened ruler, considering the age in which he lived, and under him Turkey reached the height of its power.

SOMALILAND, *so mah' le land*, or **SOMALI**, a region in the eastern part of Africa, forming the peninsula which lies between the Gulf of Aden and the Indian Ocean. Politically it is divided into four dependencies, subject to France, Great Britain, Italy and Ethiopia, respectively. The boundaries of Ethiopian Somaliland are somewhat indefinite but embrace about 130,000 square miles.

French Somaliland, or Somali Coast, as it is officially known, is the most northerly of the Somaliland dependencies, lying at the head of the Gulf of Aden. Its area is 8,880 square miles, and its population is about 69,000. The coasts are hilly; the interior is an elevated plateau. It carries on an export trade in gold, ivory, skins, hides and coffee. Jibuti, the principal port, which is also the seat of government, has a population of 11,366.

British Somaliland, officially known as *Somaliland Protectorate*, borders on the Gulf of Aden and adjoins Somali Coast and the Italian and Ethiopian dependencies. Almost its entire area of 68,000 square miles is a sandy plain, broken by occasional mountains of basalt and granite. The population, about 345,000, is made up chiefly of wandering herdsmen. Ivory, cattle, sheep and skins are exported. The largest town and seat of government is Berbera, which has a population of about 30,000.

Italian Somaliland, called officially *The Colony and Protectorate of Italian Somaliland*, extends from British Somaliland to Dik's Head in Kenya Colony. Almost its entire area of 194,000 square miles is arid. The coast is flat; the inland is hilly. The chief exports are dressed hides, myrrh, gum, cotton and live stock. The population is about 1,000,000. The chief ports are Obbia and Mogadiscio. The country is administered by a governor.

SOMERVILLE, *sum'ur vil*, MASS., a city in Middlesex County, adjoining Boston, Medford and Cambridge, on the Mystic River and on the Boston & Albany and the Boston & Maine railroads. The city is built on seven hills and covers an area of about four and one-fourth square miles. It is primarily a residence place and contains many fine homes. There are two large public parks and many places of historic interest. In Powder House Park is a circular windmill long used as a powder house. Central Hill was occupied by a redoubt during the siege of Boston. On Prospect Hill Washington is supposed to have first unfurled the American flag. Prominent institutions are the public library, the industrial school for boys, homes for the aged, a day nursery, the city hall, the Carnegie Library and a state armory. The principal industries are meat packing, brass tubing, bleaching and dyeing, jewelry, and paper boxes. A bakery and warehouse of the Great

Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company is located here, also a Ford assembly plant. The hospital is partly supported by the city. The place was settled about 1630, but few people inhabited the region for a century. It was incorporated as a town in 1842, and chartered as a city in 1872. It sprang into growth after the opening of the Middlesex canal in 1803 and after the railroad was built in 1835. Population, 1930, 103,908.

SOMME, *sohm*, a small river in Northern France, near which was fought in 1916 one of the severest battles in history. The river rises in the department of Aisne and flows southwest, entering the English Channel about fifteen miles beyond Abbeville. Its length is 140 miles. It is connected by canal with the Oise and the Scheldt.

SOMNAMBULISM, *som nam' bu liz'm*, or **SLEEPWALKING**, a peculiar activity of the mental functions during sleep, wherein the subject moves and acts as if awake, although without consciousness.

Walking in sleep is the most noticeable, but not the most marvelous, characteristic of somnambulism. The somnambulist may perform many voluntary actions, which show that to all appearances he is conscious of the things surrounding him. He may get out of bed, dress himself, go out of doors, and walk, frequently over very dangerous places, in perfect safety, in fact, he may expose himself without fear to perils which in his waking moments would seem insurmountable. On waking in the morning, the subject is either utterly unconscious of having stirred in the night or remembers it only as a mere dream. The sleepwalker should never be awakened nor startled suddenly.

In some cases somnambulists have held intelligent conversations. Sensitive and excitable people are subject to the complaint, which often accompanies other nervous affections. It appears to be hereditary. Tests have proved that a somnambulist cannot hear ordinary sounds; that he cannot see, whether his eyes be closed or wide open; and that he can neither taste nor smell. He is, however, endowed with surprising muscular control. The ailment occurs often during puberty.

SOMNUS, (from the Latin, meaning *sleep*), in ancient mythology was the god of sleep, son of Nox (night) and twin brother of Mors (death). He was supposed to bring sleep both to gods and men.

SONATA, *so nah' tah*, an instrumental

composition of three or four distinct parts or movements, each a complete composition in itself, and all held together by certain bonds of union and forming a perfect whole. The several movements may be likened to the chapters of a book, each of which has a distinct unity of its own and all related and combining to produce a single work. The sonata commonly begins with an allegro, a quick, vivacious composition, or it may begin with a slow introduction. This is followed by a slower movement—*andante*, *adagio* or *largo*. Then comes a minuet, trio or scherzo, and finally a rondo in quick time. The concerto, the symphony and the suite are all written in the sonata form. Haydn and Mozart excelled in this form, and Beethoven was the greatest master of it.

Wagner's time-scale and harmonic system prevented him from developing the sonata. Schubert performed many brilliant experiments in handling the sonata form, but the finished product of a ripened mastery of it never came from his hand. He would have developed new forms had his work continued. Brahms, however, accomplished some novel achievements in new sonata forms.

Schumann imposed a rigid technique on this form with surprising success. He exploited his mosaics of four movements and transformations of them without losing his way. Copyists have exposed their own incapacity as well as the success of their master in attempting the systematic venturesomeness of Schumann.

Mendelssohn was skilful with sonata forms and was at times brilliant, while skirting the bounds of consistent composition. In Brahms movement is lacking, although just here lies the thread of success.

SONNET, a poem of fourteen lines, rhyming according to a prescribed scheme. The form is of Italian origin. The sonnet is usually written in ten-syllable or five-foot measure; but it may be written in eight-syllable lines. It consists of two groups of lines or verses. The first is a group of eight lines (two quatrains), the second is a group of six lines (two tercets or triplets). The rhyming scheme of the first group is: *a, b, b, a; a, b, b, a*; that is, the first, fourth, fifth, and eighth lines rhyme and the second, third, sixth and seventh. The tercets may have two rhymes or three thus: *a, d, c, d, c, d*, or *c, d, c, d, e, c, d, e*. There are many deviations from the sonnet as described. The Shakespearean sonnet con-

sists of three quatrains of alternating rhymes and a couplet at the end. In modern French sonnets the tercet opens with a couplet and ends in a quatrain of alternating rhymes.

The sonnet usually consists of one principal idea elaborated. The lightness and richness of the Italian, Spanish and Portuguese languages enable their poets to express every feeling or fancy in the sonnet; but in English it has been found most suitable to grave, dignified and contemplative subjects. Among the most successful writers of English sonnets are Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth, Mrs. Browning and Rossetti. Mrs. Browning's *Sonnets from the Portuguese* are the most celebrated group of poems of this kind in our literature, and as examples of the most famous single sonnets from other authors may be mentioned Milton's *On His Own Blindness*; Wordsworth's *On Milton*; Shakespeare's "Let me not to the marriage of true minds;" Keats's *On Looking into Chapman's Homer*, Shelley's *Ozymandias*, Milton's *On His Own Blindness* is here given complete:

When I consider how my life is spent
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide,
And that one talent which is death to hide
Lodged with me useless, though my soul more bent
To serve therewith my Maker, and present
My true account, lest he returning, chide;
"Doth God exact day-labor, light denied?"
I fondly ask But Patience, to prevent
That murmur, soon replies, "God doth not need
Either man's work, or his own gifts Who
best
Bear his mild yoke, they serve him best. His
state
Is kingly, thousands at his bidding speed,
And post o'er land and ocean without rest;
They also serve who only stand and wait"

SONS OF LIBERTY, in American colonial history a society, organized for the purpose of opposing certain British policies unfavorable to the colonies. It came into existence in 1764, at the time of the Stamp Act agitation. In the beginning it was not a single organization, but a group of public-spirited associations with members in all the thirteen colonies, those in New York and Connecticut being the most active. The work was in time coordinated, and the society was chiefly responsible for the repeal of the Stamp Act in 1766. The members favored independence, and had much to do with the calling of the Continental Congress.

SONS OF VETERANS, an American patriotic society organized at Philadelphia, Pa.,

on September 29, 1879. Only lineal male descendants of honorably discharged soldiers, sailors and marines who served in the Civil War are admitted to membership, which at present is about 56,000. The insignia of the society is a bronze bar (on which is inscribed *Filii Veteranorum*, the Latinized name of the society), with a medallion bearing a monogram of the letters "S V" in a wreath above crossed cannons. The Daughters of Veterans is a similar organization.

SOOT, a black substance which results from the imperfect combustion of certain substances. Wood, coal and some fuel oils are the principal soot producers. Smoke and its accompaniment soot are among the chief nuisances of large cities. It has been estimated that in London the damage from soot is \$25,000,000 a year; in Pittsburgh, Pa., it was once nearly as great. Soot has a certain economic value. The large amount of nitrogen it contains makes it valuable as fertilizer. The pigment called *bistre* is made from chimney soot, and *lampblack* is the product of oil or resin soot. See **SMOKE**.

SOPHIA, *so'fe ah*, CHURCH OF SAINT. See **SAINT SOPHIA**.

SOPHISTS, *sof'ists*, a class of Greek philosophers who appeared in the fifth century B. C. They did not originate positive doctrines, but exerted a negative influence, maintaining a critical attitude toward existing ideas and attempting to overthrow established institutions and systems of thought. By false reasoning they were able to make what was the worst appear the better. Therefore they argued, since through reason, the highest of human faculties, man is led astray, human knowledge is worthless. Protagoras, the leading Sophist, held that since knowledge of the external world is dependent on sensation, and since sense impressions are variable, knowledge cannot be accurate. Therefore, there is no ultimate criterion, and each man is the measure of his world, and all knowledge and belief are relative. The Sophists failed to detect the identity beneath differences of appearance or to apprehend the unity of life. The logical outcome of such teaching and belief was the doctrine that each man was a law unto himself. The Sophists were despised by Socrates and by his followers.

SOPHOCLES, *sofo'klees* (about 496-406 B. C.), one of the greatest of Greek dramatists, was born at Colonus, a suburb of Athens. His first play *Triptolemus*, submitted in com-

petition with Aeschylus, won a first prize; and for thirty-two years he produced plays, receiving first prize twenty-four times. He served the state on several occasions. In 440 B. C. he was chosen one of ten generals in the war against the aristocrats of Samos; later he was a general in the Peloponnesian War.

Of the 130 plays ascribed to Sophocles, seven are extant and of undisputed authorship. They are, in chronological order, *Antigone*, *Electra*, *Trachiniae*, *Oedipus Tyrannus*, *Ajax*, *Philoctetes* and *Oedipus at Colonus*. Sophocles brought the Greek drama to the highest point of which that form of art is susceptible. He introduced several dramatic innovations—a third actor, an increase in the size of the chorus, and scenery. Whereas the characters of Aeschylus are heroic, those of Sophocles are human, revealing in the author a masterly knowledge of human nature. The tendency of the plays is ethical, and means are subordinated to ends. No tragic poet of ancient or modern times has written with more elevation and purity of style than Sophocles, and his versification stands alone in dignity and elegance.

SOPRANO. See SINGING.

SORBONNE, *sor bohñ*, a famous university in Paris, a great center of French learning, and the outgrowth of a medieval theological seminary founded by Robert de Sorbon. In its early history it was one of the most important theological schools in Europe. Its faculty was constantly called upon to pronounce opinions on important questions, and it exercised a decided influence on French history. After the French Revolution the theological school disappeared, and the institution was devoted solely to the advancement of all other higher learning. In the middle of the nineteenth century the Sorbonne became the property of the city of Paris, and in 1889 a splendid building called The New Sorbonne—perhaps the finest university building in the world—was erected. The faculties of science and letters of the University of Paris are installed here. In normal times the registration of students is about 5,000.

SOREL, *so rel'*, Que., the county town of Richelieu County, on the right bank of the Richelieu River at its junction with the Saint Lawrence, and on the Canadian Pacific and the Quebec Southern railways. It is forty-two miles northeast of Montreal, with which it has daily boat connection in summer. The

shipbuilding establishments and foundries are important. There are also manufactories of agricultural implements, sash and doors, clothing, plumbers' supplies, aerated waters and saws. Population, 1931, 10,320.

SORGHUM, *saw' gum*, a genus of grasses, one species of which is cultivated for its sweet sap, from which a molasses, popularly known as sorghum, is made. About 15,000,000 gallons of sorghum syrup are produced annually in the United States. Sorghums are tall plants, without ears but with seed heads at the top. Closely related species are kafir corn and broom corn, which are not syrup producers. They are used as forage plants and as packing for silos.

SORORITY, an association of women and girl students corresponding to the men's fraternities in colleges and universities in the United States. Sororities followed logically the introduction of coeducation in colleges and came to be a regular part of woman's participation in the social activities of college life. Like the men's fraternities, they are secret to the extent of protecting their mottoes, constitutions and grips from the knowledge of outsiders. Many sororities have branches, called "chapters," in the various colleges, only one, however, in each institution. Most of them publish catalogues, containing interesting information about the sorority, and some issue periodicals. The oldest of the coeducational sororities is the Kappa Alpha Theta, founded at De Pauw University in 1870.

SORREL, a perennial herb of the buckwheat family. The plant grows to be two feet high and has sour, juicy, arrow-shaped leaves. In Europe it is cultivated and used as a potherb and for salads. The common American sorrel is a smaller plant, and has small white, yellow or pink flowers. *Sheep sorrel* has wide-spreading roots, which make it troublesome to farmers. Indian sorrel, grown in the tropics, is used to flavor jellies and to make cooling drinks. Of the other varieties, the most common are *mountain*, *swish* and *water sorrel*.

SORREL TREE, a tree belonging to the heath family, found in the southeastern part of the United States as far north as Pennsylvania. The leaves are long and toothed and strongly acid, and from them a cooling drink may be prepared. Clusters of small, white, ball-shaped flowers are produced in summer, and after these, tiny egg-shaped berries covered with down. The sorrel tree some-

times grows to be sixty feet high. The wood is hard and fine-grained, and is used for making such articles as tool handles.

SOTHERN, *suth'urn*, EDWARD H. (1859-1933), an American actor, born at New Orleans, La., the son of a famous actor. At the age of twenty he began his theatrical career in New York and after five years' struggle became leading man in Sardou's *Scrap of Paper*, in Howard's *One of Our Girls* and in *The Highest Bidder*. In 1888 he was engaged by Daniel Frohman, and for a number of years was a leading man in the Frohman Stock Company, winning conspicuous successes in *Chumley*, *The Prisoner of Zenda* and *If I Were King*. In 1900 he began to devote his attention to Shakespearean rôles, and, in association with Julia Marlowe, produced Shakespearean repertory for several years. He married Miss Marlowe in 1911. His autobiography, *The Melancholy Tale of Me*, was published in 1916. Mr. Sothern endeared himself to thousands of soldiers in France as a Y. M. C. A. entertainer during the World War.

SOUL, *sole*, the spiritual personality, the immaterial part of man as opposed to his body. Soul is sometimes conceived of as synonymous with *mind*, but generally it is used in a wider sense, as being a whole to which belong the faculties that make the mind. *Soul* and *spirit* are more nearly synonymous, but each is used in connections in which it would be improper to use the other. Nearly all philosophies agree in regarding the soul as that part of man which enables him to think and reason, and which renders him a subject of moral government, but they differ when it comes to a question of origin and detail. Those matters have been forever providentially hidden from man



SOUND. Sound is produced by air vibrations from a solid body. Touch lightly the edge of a small bell or the tongue of a jewaharp when it is sounding, and you will feel the vibrations, but your touch will probably stop the vibrations and sound will cease. The

reeds of an organ, the strings of a violin, the wires of a piano, the head of a drum and all other sound-producing bodies vibrate in producing sound.

How Sound Travels. The vibrations of the sounding body start similar vibrations in the body through which the sound travels. When a bell is rung, the vibrations of the bell start vibrations in the atmosphere, which move in every direction from the bell and carry the sound. Sound will travel through any elastic substance, but it will not travel through a vacuum.

Sound travels through air at a temperature of 32° F., at the rate of 1,090 feet per second, and this velocity increases 1.1 feet for every additional degree in temperature; at 60° the velocity is 1,120 feet. Sound travels through hydrogen about four times as fast as through the air, and it moves through water at about 4,700 feet per second; through copper, its velocity is a little over eleven times as great as through the air, and through steel it is about fifteen times as great. By noticing a flash of lightning and counting the number of seconds between it and the report of the thunder, the distance of the cloud can be determined. The sound requires five seconds to traverse a mile, so the distance in miles is one-fifth the number of seconds.

Loudness of Sound. The loudness of sound depends upon the size of the vibrations; the greater the vibration, the louder the sound. Large bodies in vibration produce louder sounds than small ones. The intensity decreases in proportion as the square of the distance from the sounding body increases. When the distance from a sounding body is doubled, the sound is reduced to one-fourth. Speaking tubes confine the sound within narrow limits, so that the sound waves are conveyed much farther than they would be in the open air.

Difference in Sound. One man sings bass, another tenor; one lady has a soprano voice, another sings contralto. Some people speak in low, heavy tones, and others in high tones. The different keys on the piano give forth different tones. What is the cause of these different sounds? If we examine the piano we find that the keys that strike the long heavy cords are those that produce the low, heavy tones, and that the keys that produce the high tones are those that strike the short, fine cords. We can apply this illustration to any other sound-producing body and find that it holds true. The difference in sounds is due chiefly to the difference in the number of vibrations of the sounding body in a given time. The low tones are produced

by those bodies that have a low number of vibrations per second, and the high tones by those that produce a high number of vibrations. This is illustrated in the musical scale; middle C tone is produced by 256 vibrations per second. The other tones are as follows:

C	D	E	F	G	A	B	C
256	288	320	341	384	427	480	512
Do	Re	Mi	Fa	Sol	La	Ti	Do

The difference in pitch produced by doubling the number of vibrations is called an *octave*.

Reflection of Sound. When sound waves strike a hard surface, they are thrown back, or reflected, in the same way as are rays of light from a mirror. Curved walls, like the domes of buildings and the rounded ceilings and ends of audience rooms, reflect sound waves to a common point, and a person standing at this point can often hear a whisper that is uttered in some other part of the room. For this reason the name *whispering galleries* has sometimes been applied to such places. Ear trumpets are simply instruments for gathering waves of sound and reflecting them to a common point, and they are equivalent to an increase in the size of the ear. By their means sounds can be heard that could not otherwise be perceived.

An echo is produced when the reflecting surface is so far away that the sound which it throws back is distinct from the original sound. Remarkable echoes occur among mountains, where the ranges upon both sides of the valley are in such position that the sound is reflected back and forth several times. Audience rooms that are too large or are not well proportioned are often difficult to speak in, because of the echoes.

Quality of Sound. The difference between noise and music is, theoretically, the difference between regular and irregular vibrations. The quality of a tone depends upon the character of the sounding body. To illustrate, a piano, a flute and a violin may all produce a tone of the same pitch, but the tone of each can be distinctly recognized because of the differences between the instruments producing it.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information
 Ear Light
 Echo Lightning
 Harmonics Music

SOUNDING, the operation of finding the depth of water and the quality of the bot-

tom, especially by means of a plummet sunk from a ship. In navigation two plummets are used, one called the *hand lead*, weighing about eight or nine pounds, and the other, the *deep-sea lead*, weighing from twenty-five to thirty pounds. The former is used in shallow waters, and the latter at long distances from shore. Sometimes the nature of the bottom has been ascertained by attaching tallow to the base of the deep-sea lead. The scientific investigation of the ocean and its bottom has rendered more efficient sounding apparatus necessary, and has led to the invention of more complicated contrivances.

SOUSA, *soo'sa*, JOHN PHILIP (1854-1932), an American composer and band leader, born at Washington, D. C. He conducted the Marine Band at Washington at two different times and in 1892 he formed the organization known the world over as Sousa's Band. Sousa has written extensively for band and orchestra, and his military marches, among them *The Washington Post*, *Under the Double Eagle*, *El Capitan*, *King Cotton*, *Liberty Bell* and *The Stars and Stripes Forever*, are very popular. A number of descriptive suites and light operas also stand to his credit, and several novels. In 1917 Sousa was chosen to organize bands at the Great Lakes Naval Training Station and was made a lieutenant in the United States navy.

SOUTH AFRICA, *Union of* See **UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA**

SOUTH AFRICAN WAR (1899-1902), a war for supremacy in South Africa, fought between Great Britain and two Boer republics—the South African (now the Transvaal) and the Orange Free State.

Causes of the War. In 1884 gold was discovered in the Witwatersrand, which drew an increasing number of foreigners to the Transvaal each year. By 1899 the *Uitlanders*, as the Boers called the foreigners, outnumbered the original settlers by seven to three. Most of these foreigners were British subjects, and the Boers suspected them of hating the Dutch. Under the leadership of their president, Paul Kruger, the Boers planned from the beginning of this migration to keep the Uitlanders from gaining control of the government. The naturalization laws, which before 1885 had been liberal, were restricted, until in 1887 the term of residence for naturalization was fixed at fifteen years.

The foreigners, of course, claimed that they were entitled to a voice in the govern-

ment and that the restrictions imposed upon them were unjust. Jameson's Raid, in 1896, brought matters to a crisis, and although the British government had Jameson punished, the Boers used the incident as an excuse for further restrictions on the Uitlanders. The latter petitioned Great Britain, but the negotiations which the British government attempted to make with the Boers failed in the end, and it became apparent that the question could not be settled peacefully. War was declared in October, 1899, the Orange Free State joining cause with the South African Republic.

Campaigns of the War. When hostilities began, the British had about twelve thousand men in Natal, and small forces at Kimberley and other points. At the outset the Boers seemed to have a decided advantage. British forces were shut up in Ladysmith, Mafeking and Kimberley, but the other troops were unable by their successes in the field to offset these reverses. A large addition was at once voted to the English army in South Africa, and Sir Redvers Buller, on his arrival in Africa with reinforcements, at once moved to the relief of Ladysmith.

In December further reinforcements arrived under Lord Roberts, Lord Kitchener acting as his chief-of-staff. The British cavalry force also was increased, and thus one of the early drawbacks of the British was remedied. By the last of February, 1900, the sieges of Kimberley and Ladysmith had been raised, the relief of the latter place giving rise to much of the hardest fighting of the war. From this time on the tide of fortune was on the side of the British. In March, Bloemfontein was taken, and while there Roberts proclaimed the Orange Free State British territory, under the name of the Orange River Colony.

The British force then moved toward Pretoria, taking, en route, Kroonstadt and Johannesburg; in June Pretoria was occupied. President Kruger fled at the occupation of Pretoria. The three months which followed the capture of Pretoria were devoted by the British to an attempt to capture all the Boer forces in the neighborhood, and by the first of August it seemed as if all organized warfare, had ceased. Roberts, therefore, issued a proclamation in September, 1900, declaring the South African Republic British territory under the name of the Transvaal Colony.

In spite of their reverses in fortune, the Boers refused to make peace and a constant guerrilla warfare was carried on under De Wet and Botha. Kitchener, who had been left in command on Roberts' return to England, gained for himself much unpopularity by gathering into large camps, called concentration camps, the Boer women and children, and compelling them to live under conditions which caused much sickness and death. By May, 1902, the Boers had been forced to the point of exhaustion, and they accepted the peace on which England insisted.

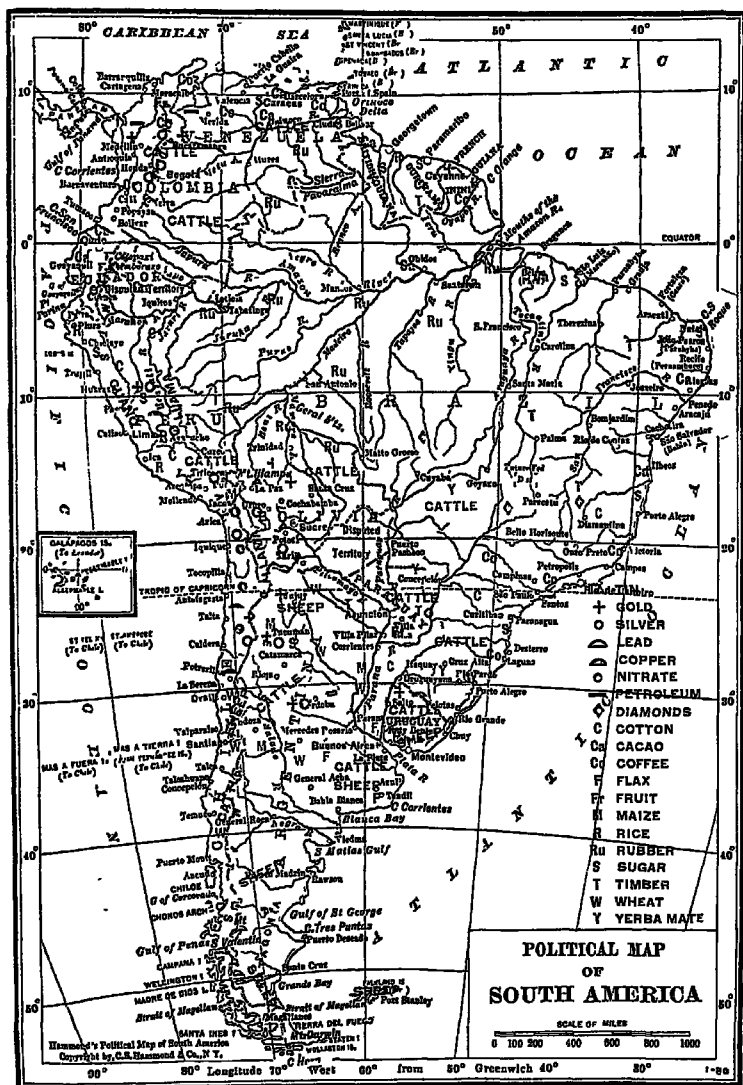
The Terms of Peace. Peace terms provided that all Boers lay down their arms and acknowledge themselves subjects of Edward VII. In return, all prisoners outside of the colonies were to be sent back to their homes, and no action was to be taken against burghers for acts in connection with the war. Provision was also made for the teaching of the Dutch language in the public schools in all cases where it was desired by the parents, and its use permitted in court. It was also provided that the military administration of the two colonies was to be superseded by a civil government at the earliest possible moment.

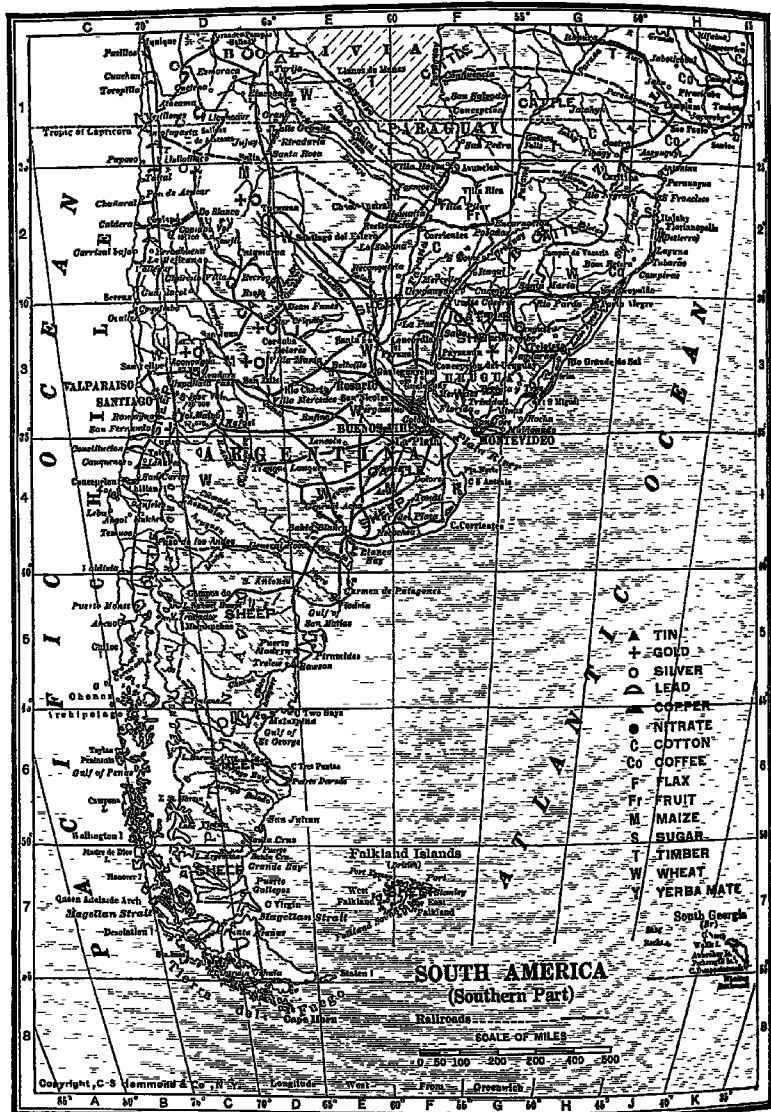
Related Articles.	Consult the following titles for additional information:
Boer	Ladysmith
Jameson, Leander	Orange Free State
Starr	Rhodes, Cecil John
Kimberley	Transvaal
Kitchener, Horatio	Union of South Africa
Herbert, Earl	
Kruger, Stephanus	
J F	



SOUTH AMERICA, the fourth largest grand division of the earth. It is the southern continent of America, or the New World, and is separated from North America in part by the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico and is connected with it by the narrow Isthmus of Panama. Although the two continents have developed economically along decidedly individual lines, it is interesting to note that together they represent the world's great centers of democracy; no independent country in this vast expanse has a monarchical form of government.

Size and Location. South America is but little more than two-thirds as large as North







RELIEF MAP OF SOUTH AMERICA

Above. Profile—greatly exaggerated in scale—of cross section of continent, A to B.

America; it has much more nearly the regular shape of a triangle than has its northern neighbor. Its greatest length from north to south is about 4,800 miles, and from east to west it is about 3,300 miles. The area is 7,700,000 square miles, and it therefore occupies about one-seventh of the total land area of the globe.

Coast Line and Islands. Few gulfs or bays break the continent's remarkably regular coast line. The large indentations are on the north, the Gulf of Darien; on the northeast, the mouth of the Amazon, and on the southeast, All Saints Bay, the Bay of Rio de Janeiro, the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, Bahía Blanca, Gulf of San Mantías and Gulf of Saint George. There are few islands belonging to the continent. Those worthy of mention are Trinidad, off the northern coast, the Falkland Islands, east of the southern extremity of the continent, and the Galapagos, on the equator, west of Ecuador.

Mountains and Plains. There are three systems of mountains in South America, the greatest of which is the Andean Cordillera, or the Andes, on the Pacific coast, stretching in a continuous chain for over 4,000 miles, from Cape Horn to the Isthmus of Panama. Next to the Himalayas, in Asia, this is the highest mountain range in the world. Its loftiest peak is Aconcagua, reaching a height of 23,080 feet. Many of the Andean peaks are active volcanoes, and severe earthquakes are likely to occur throughout the chain. The second system is that of the highlands of Guiana, which lie north of the Amazon valley. Here are several irregular groups of mountains, about 2,000 feet high, which separate the plains of the Orinoco from those of the Rio Negro and the Amazon. The Brazilian highland, the third system, is very broad and is crossed by low ranges of mountains. Its average height is less than half that of the Andes.

From the configuration of its surface, the continent may be divided into five physical regions: (1) The low country skirting the shores of the Pacific Ocean, from fifty to 150 miles in breadth, and 4,000 miles in length; the two extremities of this territory are fertile, the middle is a sandy desert. (2) The basin of the Orinoco, a country consisting of extensive plains, or steppes, called *llanos*. This region is treeless, except for palms and mimosas which grow along the

streams and crown the low hills. In the rainy season this division is covered with grasses which afford fine pasturage, while in the dry season the heat is so intense that the region is hardly more than a desert. (3) The basin of the Amazon, a vast plain, embracing a surface of more than 2,000,000 square miles, possessing a rich soil and humid climate is covered almost everywhere with dense forests, which harbor innumerable tribes of wild animals and are thinly inhabited by savages, who live by hunting and fishing. (4) The great southern plain, watered by the Plata and the numerous streams descending from the eastern summits of the Andes; open steppes, which are here called *pampas*, occupy the greater portion of this region, which is dry, and in some parts barren, but in general is covered with a strong growth of weeds and tall grass, which feed large herds of horses and cattle and afford shelter to a few wild animals. (5) The country of Brazil, eastward of the Paraná and the Uruguay, presenting alternate ridges and valleys, thickly covered with wood on the side next the Atlantic, and opening into steppes, or pastures, in the interior.

Rivers. The three important river systems of South America are the Amazon, the Orinoco and the Plata. All of these rivers flow into the Atlantic. The Amazon, the largest river system in the world, drains nearly one-third of the continent. It rises in the Andes, is 4,000 miles long, and is navigable for about 2,300 miles. It has many large, navigable tributaries. The Orinoco rises in the Parima Mountains, and is 1,400 miles long. It is navigable throughout most of its course in the lowlands. The Orinoco and the Amazon systems are connected by a small river called the Cassiquiare. The Plata is formed by the confluence of the Paraná and the Uruguay rivers and is 185 miles long; at its mouth it is about 125 miles wide; the system is navigable for 1,000 miles. The principal smaller rivers are the São Francisco, the Rio Negro, the Magdalena and the Colorado.

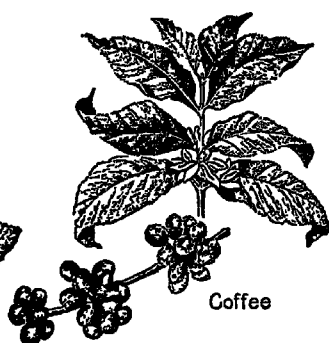
Lakes. South America contains comparatively few large lakes. The largest, Titicaca, in the Andes, covers an area of about 500 square miles and is over 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. There are several small lakes in the mountain regions, but none is of special importance.

Mineral Resources. The mineral wealth of South America includes gold, silver and cop-





Paraguay Tea



Coffee



Cacao



Ipecac



Cinchona



Cassava



Vegetable Ivory



India Rubber

per, mined chiefly in the Andes; nitrate of soda, used as a fertilizer and in the making of gunpowder; mercury, diamonds and coal, as well as other valuable minerals. Chile is rich in copper and silver, and the coal mines give promise of great wealth. There are celebrated silver mines in Bolivia and considerable supplies of gold in Venezuela and Guiana. Some rich gold mines have been discovered in the southern part of Argentina. Brazil has extensive deposits of coal and iron. Previous to the discovery of the diamond field in South Africa, it was the chief source from which diamonds were obtained. Emeralds are also found in Venezuela.

Climate. Considering its extent in latitude, South America has a remarkably equable climate. The extremes of heat and cold which characterize North America are not found here. The northern portion of the continent, although lying within the tropical regions, has the intense heat greatly modified by its elevations, and some of the highest peaks in the Andes, even under the equator, contain snow throughout the year. The lowlands along the Orinoco, the Amazon and the coast of Brazil have a hot climate. The southern portion of the continent is free from sudden changes or extremes, because of the nearness of the oceans and the influence of the mountains along the western coast.

The rainfall is heaviest in the Amazon basin and diminishes toward the south, until the arid region, constituting a large part of Argentina and Patagonia, is reached. The southern portion has a damp climate, characteristic of the cool temperate regions. The seasons are just the opposite of what they are in the northern hemisphere, the summer occurring in December, January and February, and the winter in June, July and August.

Vegetation. The vegetable kingdom in South America has a magnificent development, particularly in the vast tropical territory east of the Andes, the basins of the Amazon, the Orinoco and their tributaries, where the genera and species are very abundant, the forests large and the forms gigantic. Besides palms, there are dye-woods of all sorts, cedar, mahogany and ebony; farther south are the araucarias of Chile and the beech forests of Argentina. There are numerous kinds of fruit trees, the fruits of which are usually very large and covered with

extremely thick shells. Among these may be mentioned the cannon-ball tree and the Brazil nut tree. Ferns and water lilies are also numerous and splendidly represented. The jungle, or undergrowth, in the forests is impenetrable in many places. Cinchona is found on the higher ground within the tropics. A holly is grown, the leaves of which are soaked in water and produce a beverage called *mate*, or *yerba mate*, also known as *Paraguay tea*. During the rainy seasons the pampas and llanos are covered with a thick growth of grass.

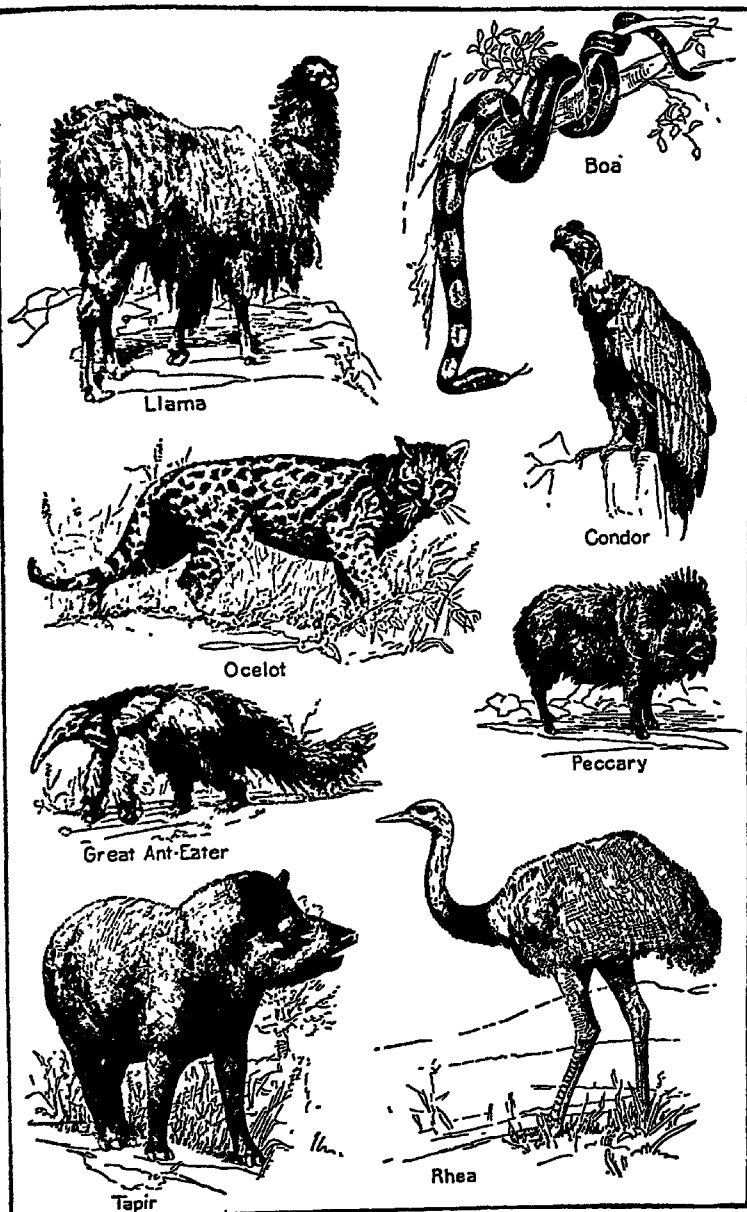
Industries and Products. The leading industries of South America are herding, agriculture and mining. The pampas in the South and the llanos in the north furnish a wealth of pasture lands, while the valleys of the Plata River system, the southeastern part of the Brazilian plateau and the river valleys along the northern coast of the grand division constitute the great agricultural regions.

The selvas of the Amazon valley yield much of the world's supply of India rubber, as well as great quantities of Peruvian bark. Coffee, sugar cane, cotton, cacao, cassava and tobacco are the products of the torrid zone; while the temperate regions yield abundant crops of wheat, corn, barley and flaxseed.

The foreign trade of South America is mainly with the United States and Europe. During the World War, when so many European countries were closed to commerce, the trade between South America and the United States was greatly stimulated. A better understanding between these two countries was developed, and with it came the opening of new markets which promise great commercial opportunities and advantages for the future.

South America's most valuable commodities are wheat, meat, coffee, rubber, wool, hides and nitrate of soda. The continent's most extensive railway system is in the southern section. A tunnel through the Andes affords railroad connection between the Plata and the Pacific, while the only commercial route in the central region is supplied by the Amazon and its tributaries. Important air routes connect North America with all the great coast cities on both oceans.

Animal Life. The zoology of South America is extensive and peculiar, embracing a fourth of all the known mammals, among which, however, are almost none of the wild animals so abundant in Africa and Asia.



The most powerful of the carnivora is the jaguar, which is the only formidable beast of prey in the whole continent. In the selvas are found most of the animals living in trees, and with the exception of the tapir, jaguar, ant-eating bear and boa constrictor, they are small. Among these are monkeys, sloths, peccaries, many richly-colored but songless birds, and countless insects and reptiles. In the rivers are found alligators and the awkward manatee. The armadillo is said to be the only wild animal that increases with the increase of population. Many of the species are peculiar to South America and are not found elsewhere. The llama, alpaca, vicuña and little chinchilla are found in the Andes; the llama is also used as a beast of burden. In the mountains the deer, bear, panther and the great condor are found.

Inhabitants. South America is more sparsely populated than North America. The densest population is found near the coast; the interior is thinly peopled, and chiefly by Indians. The aborigines of South America are undoubtedly of the same race as those of North America, as there exists a very striking general physical resemblance between the native races throughout the whole of the American continent, from Cape Horn to Bering's Strait. In South America these red men are far more numerous than in North America, and though many are half-civilized, a greater number are in a state of barbarism. A considerable portion of the population also consists of people of Spanish and Portuguese blood, and in addition there are a far greater number of mixed Indian and European blood, civilized and forming an important element in the various states of the continent. To these are now being added considerable numbers of Spanish and Italian immigrants.

Political Divisions. The political divisions, in their order from north to south, are Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, British Guiana, Dutch Guiana, French Guiana, Brazil, Ecuador, Peru, Paraguay, Uruguay, Argentina, or Argentine Republic, Bolivia and Chile.

History. Columbus first touched the continent at the mouth of the Orinoco in 1498. The next navigator to explore this continent was Hojeda, a Spaniard, who followed the coast from near the equator to Venezuela. He was accompanied by Amerigo Vesputius, who published the first account of the New World (see AMERIGUS VESPUTIUS). Spain

and Portugal had almost entire control of the continent until the beginning of the nineteenth century. The Spanish colonies declared their independence in 1810, and after a ten years' war a number of republics were established. In 1823 Brazil became independent of Portugal and retained a monarchical form of government which lasted until 1889, when the form of government was changed to a republic. The only foreign possessions on the continent are those of British, French and Dutch Guiana.

South America was affected by the World War in much the same way as North America, as many of the republics on the southern continent suffered severely from the German submarine campaign. Brazil declared war on Germany on October 26, 1917, and Argentina, enraged by the insolence of a German diplomatic official, Count Luxburg, was all but swept into the conflict. Germany's disavowal of the attitude of the count prevented an actual rupture, but the allies had the sympathy of the majority of the Argentine people. Bolivia, Peru, Uruguay and Ecuador, manifesting their friendship for the United States, severed diplomatic relations with Germany before the close of 1917. After the war trade rivalry involving the United States and Europe's commercial nations for advantage in the growing trade of South America became intensified.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

POLITICAL DIVISIONS

Each Country is Treated in a Separate Article

ISLANDS

Falkland Tierra del Fuego Trinitad

MOUNTAINS

Aconcagua Cordillera
Andes Cotopaxi
Chimborazo

RIVERS

Amazon Paraguay
Madeira Paraná
Magdalena Río de la Plata
Orinoco Uruguay

MISCELLANEOUS

Inca Patagonia
Indians, American Titicaca, Lake
Llanos

SOUTHAMPTON, *south hampton*, ENGLAND, a seaport town, situated on a peninsula at the mouth of the Itchen River, on Southampton Water, an inlet of the English Channel. It is eighteen miles northwest of Portland and seventy-nine miles southwest of London, and is a favorite summer resort. Southampton was formerly a walled town, and some of the wall and several gates still remain. Among the important buildings are



Pottery



A Native Home



Dagger
and Spear



An Indian
Woman



POPULATION CHART
Native Race, Few White People
European and American
Thoroughly Settled.



An Indian Man



Typical Open-Air Market Place

God's House, a hospital, and the churches of Saint Michael and Holywood. The town is the most important English seaport on the channel, and is a port of call and a coaling station. It is the seat of a university college established in 1850. From Southampton, in 1620, the *Mayflower* set sail for the New World, and in commemoration of this event a memorial tower was erected in 1914. Population, 1931, 176,025.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA, a state of the Commonwealth of Australia, occupying the south-central portion of the continent and extending from the Great Australian Bight, on the south, to the Northern Territory and Queensland, on the north. It is bounded on the east by Victoria, New South Wales and Queensland, and on the west by Western Australia. The Northern Territory was originally a part of South Australia, but was transferred to the Commonwealth in 1911. The area is 380,070 square miles, a little greater than that of the province of Ontario.

South Australia occupies a portion of the great Australian plain, and with the exception of some low mountains distributed over the state, the country is lowland and nearly level, rising by a gentle slope to a plateau of 600 to 1,000 feet in the interior. There are a number of shallow lakes, including Eyre, Torrens, Gardiner and Everard. These are partially salt. The Murray River flows through the southeastern part and is the only stream of importance in the state.

The climate is hot, but usually healthful. Along the coast there is considerable rainfall, but in the interior the rainfall is often not more than ten, and sometimes only five inches. For these reasons agriculture is confined chiefly to the southeastern section.

Agriculture forms the chief industry of the inhabitants. Wheat is the most important crop, followed by barley and oats. Large quantities of oranges, grapes and other fruits are grown, and the manufacture of wine has become an industry of considerable importance.

Copper, silver and gold are found in the mountains. The first gold mine in Australia was opened in South Australia, but copper is now mined in larger quantities than any other metal. Silver and lead are mined in small quantities, and iron, stone, phosphate rock, salt, kaolin, gypsum and other minerals occur. There are about 2,700 miles of railways in the state.

The executive department consists of a governor, appointed by the Crown, and a council consisting of six ministers and the chief justice of the supreme court. The legislature comprises two bodies—the legislative council, consisting of twenty members, and the house of assembly, of forty-six members, all elected by popular suffrage for three years, the right to vote being extended to women. Elementary education is free and compulsory upon children up to the age of thirteen. Adelaide is the capital. Population, 1934, 583,304.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
Adelaide Australia Murray River

SOUTH BEND, IND., the county seat of Saint Joseph County, 86 miles southeast of Chicago, on the Saint Joseph River and on the Grand Trunk, the New York Central, the New Jersey, Indiana & Illinois, the Pennsylvania and the Michigan Central railroads. Six bus lines, two electric roads and a municipal airport serve the city. The University of Notre Dame (which see) and Saint Mary's College are located at Notre Dame, two miles north of the city. The university was founded in 1842 and has grown to be one of the leading Catholic universities in America.

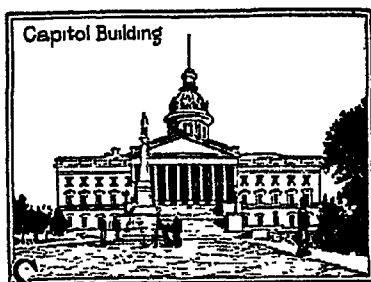
Important institutions and buildings include the Medical Laboratory, the Historical Museum, the Masonic Temple, the Knights of Columbus building, the Federal building, the Progress Club, the Union Station and the Hoffman Hotel.

There are 32 parks with a public natatorium and an open air pool in the large amusement park. There are four golf courses. South Bend is the center of a lake playground.

Manufactures include agricultural implements, paper boxes, automobiles, clothing, punch and drill presses, fishing tackle, electrical equipment, radios, pipe fittings and tools, wallpaper, paint and varnish, structural steel, ball and roller bearings, municipal equipment and millwork. Laving conditions for workmen have been carefully provided for.

The landing place of La Salle on the Saint Joseph River is plainly marked. The log cabin of Pierre Navarre, the first white settler, still is to be found nearby on U. S. highway number 31.

The town was incorporated in 1835 and was chartered in 1865. Population, 1930, 104,193.



SOUTH CAROLINA, one of the South Atlantic group of American states, lying between North Carolina and Georgia and bordered for 190 miles by the Atlantic Ocean. In the city of Charleston it possesses one of the country's great ocean ports. The form of the state is roughly triangular, and it has an area of 30,989 square miles, which ranks it as the thirty-ninth state in size. In 1920 the population was 1,683,724. In 1930 the census reported the population as 1,738,765, ranking it as twenty-sixth, with a density of 57 to the square mile. The popular name of South Carolina is the *Palmetto State*.

Surface and Drainage South Carolina has three natural divisions of surface, known respectively as the "low country," the "middle country" and the "up country." The first division consists of low lands along the coast, extending in some places a hundred miles inland. Most of this region is but a few feet above sea level, and low islands and salt marshes border the coast. The "middle country" consists of rolling land, broken occasionally by sandhills. Along the western border of this region is a belt of sandhills partially covered with pine forests, and known as the "Pine Barrens." Beyond this the country rises abruptly to the Piedmont plain. The "up country" includes the northern and western parts of the state, and is rich in minerals. In the northwest the Blue Ridge Mountains rise abruptly to a height of over 2,000 feet above the plateau; Sassafras Mountain in the Blue Ridge and on the North Carolina state line is 3,548 feet high.

The drainage is to the southeast. The principal rivers are the Savannah, the Pedee, the Congaree and the Santee. Below the Fall Line these streams are deep and sluggish. At the Fall Line and above they furnish abundant water power, and cities with thriving industries are found on them.

Climate. South Carolina has a delightful climate. The winters are short, seldom lasting longer than six weeks. The summers, while long, are not usually hot or enervating, and the nights are always cool. Snow falls only in the mountains. The average annual temperature is 63°, the average rainfall, is about 48 inches. There are about 245 frost-free days on the coast and 204 such days on the uplands.

Mineral Resources The mineral resources of South Carolina are extensive and varied. Clay products are the most important. Considerable building stone is quarried and some gold mining is still carried on. There are deposits of silver, lead, iron ore, marble, granite, asbestos, soapstone and mica. The value of minerals produced in a year is about \$1,000,000, with a tendency to go below that sum rather than to exceed it.

Agriculture. South Carolina has been an agricultural state from earliest times, although the value of manufactures surpasses that of farm products. These include cotton, tobacco, corn and oats chiefly. The cotton yield is about 375,000 bales annually. The sea-island cotton is the best in the world according to some experts; it is produced in large quantities in the strip of islands near the coast. See **SEA ISLANDS**.

Corn is raised to the extent of 20,000,000 bushels a year, oats about 7,000,000, wheat about 600,000 bushels; tobacco about 50,000,000 pounds. Truck gardening and fruit growing are rapidly developing industries. Watermelons are grown in abundance, peaches are cultivated in the Piedmont region, and olives and oranges grow along the coast. Among native fruits also are apples, pears, quinces, plums, apricots, and cherries. The pecan crop amounts to 1,200,000 bushels annually. The live stock of the state is valued at \$29,356,000. There are extensive pine and cypress forests in the mountain sections and in the low country as well.

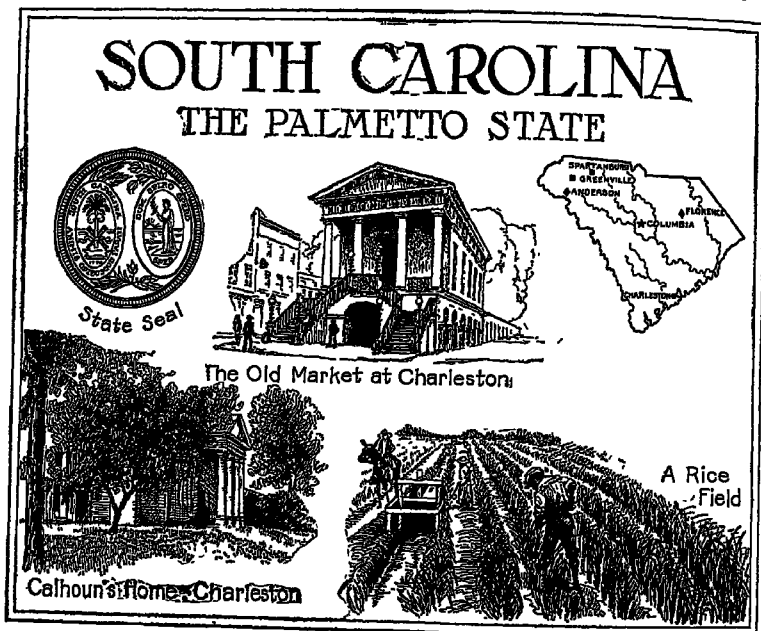
Manufactures. The factories of the state have increased to a very large extent as manufacturers have moved to the sources of raw materials. Manufacturing plants number about 1,000, with cotton goods as the most important commodity. About all the grades of cotton cloth are produced. Lumber and lumber products rank second, then follow fertilizers, cottonseed oil, foundry products, printing and publishing, flour and feeds.

These developments grow out of the vast

hydro-electric resources of the state. South Carolina has stood sixth among the states in the development of water power. Further expansion of the power resource is inevitable.

Fisheries have been developed at Charleston, Georgetown, Beaufort and Port Royal; oysters, shad, sea bass, sturgeon, shrimp and hard clams are taken in large quantities.

partment consists of a governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of state, a comptroller-general, an attorney-general, a treasurer, an adjutant-general and a superintendent of education, each elected for two years. Numerous commissions and boards are named by the legislature or by the governor. The courts comprise a supreme court of one chief jus-



Transportation. The Savannah, the Pedee, the Congaree and the Santee rivers are navigable to the Fall Line. In addition to the excellent port facilities at Charleston there are good harbors at Georgetown and Port Royal. The state highways exceed 6,000 miles in extent. The state is well supplied with railroads, which traverse it from northeast to southwest and from northwest to southeast—about 4,000 miles in all. These lines are the Atlantic Coast Line, the Seaboard Air Line and the Southern railroads. Domestic exports amount to more than \$16,000,000 in a year.

Government. The legislature consists of a senate of forty-six members, elected for four years, one-half retiring every two years, and a house of representatives of 124 members, elected for two years. The executive de-

partment consists of a governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of state, a comptroller-general, an attorney-general, a treasurer, an adjutant-general and a superintendent of education, each elected for two years. Numerous commissions and boards are named by the legislature or by the governor. The courts comprise a supreme court of one chief jus-

Education. Marked improvement has been made in the school system within the past few years. Separate schools are maintained for the white and colored races. White pupils number over 340,000 and Negro pupils over 330,000. As early as 1710 public education was provided for poor children and a free school system was established in 1868. The state university (which see) founded in 1801 is at Columbia. Among other institutions of learning are the following:

The Citadel, a military college at Charleston.

Items of Interest on South Carolina

South Carolina is the only state in which divorce is not allowed under any circumstances; this is a provision of the state constitution.

The tree and plant life is semi-tropical in character on the coast islands, where the palmetto, live oak, and magnolia are common; in the Coastal Plain the long-leaf pine predominates in the sandy regions while the cypress is commonest in the swamps; in the uplands, pines, oaks and hickories, as well as elms, maples, and chestnuts, are found everywhere.

Medicinal and flowering plants are abundant; a few of the former are ginseng, snakeroot, bloodroot, horehound and wild flax; of the latter the most prominent are jessamines, azaleas, lilies, roses, violets, honeysuckle and goldenrod.

Any officer, state, county, or municipal, "who, through negligence or connivance, permits a prisoner to be seized and lynched," forfeits his office and becomes ineligible to hold any public office or trust in the state unless pardoned by the governor; the county in which the crime occurs is, without regard to the conduct of the officer, liable for damages of not less than \$2,000 to the heir or representative of the person lynched, and the county is authorized to collect the amount from the persons engaged in the lynching.

Questions on South Carolina

What is the area of South Carolina? Describe its surface.

What is the highest point in the state?

What are the principal rivers?

What is the character of the tree and plant life?

What percentage of the total area is covered by forests?

Name some of the common flowers, song birds and other animals.

How many farms are there in South Carolina?

What are the principal crops?

What is the most important product of the fisheries?

Clemson Agricultural College, Clemson College.

Coker College, Hartsville.

Columbia College, Columbia.

College of Charleston, Charleston.

Converse College, Spartanburg.

Erskine College, Due West.

Furman University, Greenville.

Greenville Woman's College.

Lander College, Greenwood.

Limestone College, Gaffney.

Newberry College, Newberry.

Presbyterian College, Clinton.

Winthrop College, Rock Hill.

Wofford College, Spartanburg.

Medical College of the State of South Carolina, Charleston.

Lutheran Theological Seminary, Columbia.

Benedict College (for Negroes), Columbia.

State Colored Normal and Industrial College, Orangeburg.

State Institutions. The reformatory for young Negro boys is at Columbia; there are also an industrial school at Florence, a state farm at Boykin, a state hospital for the insane and an infirmary for Confederate soldiers at Columbia.

Cities. There are nine cities in the state with populations exceeding 10,000. The largest are Charleston, Columbia (the capital), Greenville, Spartanburg, Florence, Anderson, Sumter and Rock Hill.

History. In 1562 French Huguenots settled at Port Royal, S. C., but the post was speedily abandoned, and the region was a few years later occupied by Spanish missions which held it for nearly a century. In 1663 the territory from Virginia to present-day Florida was granted to eight proprietors, and Charleston, the first permanent settlement in South Carolina, was planted seven years later. The coast was settled from England and the English West Indies and by a small migration of French Huguenots. After the Crown acquired the colony in 1729 the interior was settled, chiefly by English, Scotch-Irish and Germans. By 1700 South Carolina had developed a new staple, rice, to which indigo was added later. The result was a large slave population. (There were 794,000 Negroes in the state in 1930.)

In the revolutionary controversy South Carolina was conservative but tenaciously attached to colonial rights. In 1776 the British fleet was brilliantly repulsed by the fort later known as Fort Moultrie, but in the last

three years of the war the state was overrun by the enemy and suffered terrible loss in the several important battles and in the innumerable small engagements. The Federal Constitution was ratified after somewhat bitter discussion, in May, 1788.

South Carolina was always strongly Anti-Federalist in sentiment, and it came into serious collision with the national government on the passage of the Clay tariff act in 1832, secession being averted only by compromise. It was the first state to secede preceding the outbreak of the Civil War (December 20, 1860), and the first battle of the war was fought at Fort Sumter in the following April. Though the voting population of the state was but 47,000, it furnished 60,000 men to the Confederate army, of whom one-fifth were killed. It refused to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment, but adopted a constitution allowing negro suffrage, and was readmitted to the Union, on June 25, 1868. It suffered especially under the carpetbag régime, the state debt being increased from five to twenty million dollars in five years.

Notable incidents in its history have been the Charleston earthquake, August 31, 1886, a famous storm and tidal wave in 1893, and the South Carolina and West Indian Exposition of 1901 and 1902. It has been consistently Democratic in both state and national politics.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

GEOGRAPHY

Anderson
Blue Ridge
Charleston
Coastal Plain
Columbia

Greenville
Piedmont Region
Spartanburg
Sumter

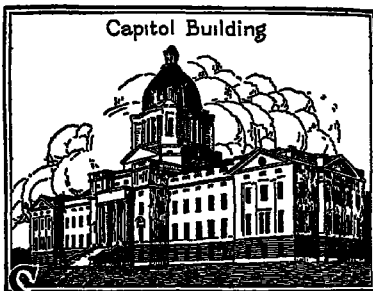
HISTORY

Calhoun, John C.
Carpetbaggers
Fort Moultrie
Fort Sumter

Ku-Klux Klan
Nullification
Reconstruction
States' Rights

SOUTH CAROLINA, UNIVERSITY OF, a co-educational state institution located at Columbia. It was founded as the South Carolina College in 1801, and was opened in 1805. Before the Civil War it was one of the most advanced colleges in the Union. During the war the college was closed and the buildings were used as a hospital, first by the Confederates and later by the Federals. Reopened as a university in 1866, it was closed again after a few years in consequence of unsettled political conditions, until 1880, when it was organized as a college. Since its last reorganization in 1906 as the

University of South Carolina it has experienced rapid development, and now includes a college of arts and science; schools of commerce, education, engineering, journalism, law, pharmacy, a graduate school and a summer school. The faculty numbers about 88 and there are about 1,600 students. The libraries contain about 160,000 volumes, including a rich collection of material on the history of the state.



SOUTH DAKOTA, popularly called **THE SUNSHINE STATE**, because of its many bright, sunny days, is a great agricultural state of the American Union, belonging to the north-central group. Originally it was a part of Dakota Territory, the land of the Dakota tribe of Siouan Indians. The name Dakota is an Indian word meaning *allies*, it refers to the membership of the Dakotas in the Sioux Confederation.

Location and Area. South Dakota is bounded on the north and south by North Dakota and Nebraska, respectively. The Missouri River, which flows entirely across it in a general southeasterly direction, forms a portion of its boundary on the south. On the west South Dakota adjoins Montana and Wyoming, and on the east it borders on Minnesota and Iowa. In general it is rectangular in shape.

With an area of 77,615 square miles, of which 747 square miles are water, South Dakota is the fourteenth state in the Union in size. North Dakota is smaller by nearly 7,000 square miles and Nebraska by 95 square miles.

Population and Cities. By the 1930 census South Dakota had 692,849 inhabitants and was the thirty-sixth state in the Union in population. Canadians, Dutch, Czechoslovakians and English are the most numerous among the foreign-born. Indians number

about 21,900. Pierre is the capital of the state. Other cities in the order of size include Sioux Falls, 33,362 population, and the following which have each more than 5,000 inhabitants: Aberdeen, Huron, Mitchell, Rapid City, Yankton, and Lead.

Surface and Drainage. The surface for the most part is a gently-undulating prairie, rising from a plain east of the Missouri River to a plateau in the western portion of the state and to the Black Hills in the southwest. Two long and narrow tablelands, from 1,500 to 2,000 feet above sea level, covered in places with boulder-strewn hills, extend in a nearly north and south direction; one, the Coteau des Prairies, is near the eastern border, and the other, the Coteau du Missouri, lies just east of the Missouri River. Between these plateaus is the basin of the James River. West of the Missouri River the surface is more uneven, and hills and buttes are numerous. All of this region is drained by branches of the Missouri. The Black Hills region comprises an area of about 5,000 square miles, extending into Wyoming. The highest point is Harney Peak, 7,242 feet in altitude. The central zone is of granite, and around it are rows of hills made in the upturned edges of sedimentary rock layers.

To the southeast of the Black Hills are the famous Bad Lands, though the name is misleading, for it is simply the abbreviation for "bad-for-traveling lands," as the early French explorers called them. This region is made up of soft clays, marls, shales and sands, in which the forces of erosion have produced deep, steep-walled gulches and ravines, and numerous hills and buttes. The North Dakota bad lands extend into the northwestern part of the state. These clays are more highly colored and the scenery is more beautiful than in the southwest.

The state is drained by the Missouri River system. Parallel to the Missouri and 100 miles east of it is a large tributary, the James River. The remaining tributaries of the Missouri all enter from the west, they are, in order from north to south, the Grand, the Owl or Moreau, the Big Cheyenne and the White. Nearly all of the other rivers flow toward the southeastern corner of the state; a part of the eastern boundary is formed by the Big Sioux, on which Sioux Falls is located.

Climate The climate, being continental, is characterized by extremes of heat and cold,

but as the air is clear and dry, the heat of summer and the cold of winter are not so uncomfortable as in states to the east where the air is damp. The average annual temperature of the east half of the state is 44.6° of the west half, 45.5°. The mean annual rainfall for the eastern half of the state is 21.6 inches, and for the western half, 18.35 inches. The unusual amount of sunshine and the invigorating qualities of the air make the climate very healthful.

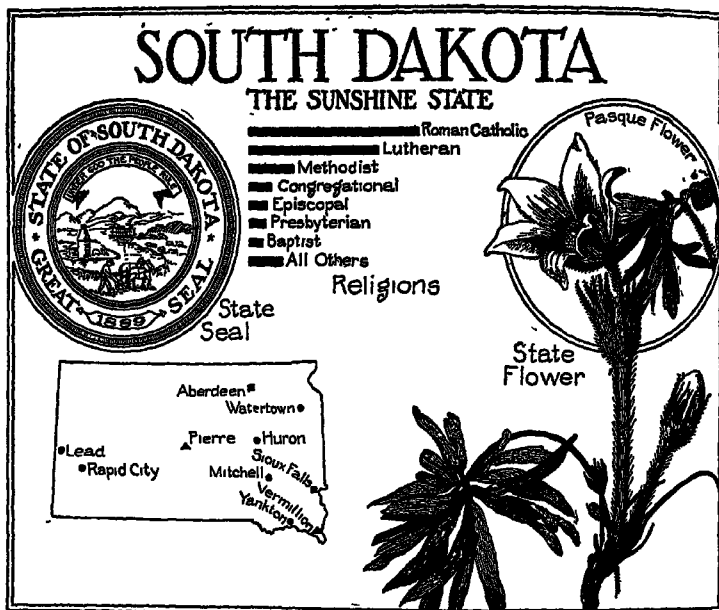
Mineral Resources. The Black Hills are said to comprise the richest 100 square miles on earth, yielding each year about 26 per cent of the gold produced in the United States, excluding Alaska. This gives South Dakota second place among the gold-producing states. Silver, mica, lead, tungsten, tin, copper, iron, manganese, graphite and other rare and valuable minerals are also found in this region. Here also are valuable deposits of limestone, granite, sandstone, marble and gypsum. The rich coal and lignite areas in the western half of the state have not yet been developed. Excellent building and paving stone, called red quartzite or Sioux Falls Jasper, is quarried at Sioux Falls and Dell Rapids, along the Big Sioux River. Cement is manufactured from beds of limestone near Rapid City; this state-owned plant was authorized by constitutional amendment in 1918 and by the state legislature in 1919; it began operations in 1924.

Agriculture. The rich plains of the eastern half of the state have been famous for years for wheat, corn and other farm products, and the grazing plains of the western portion are highly adapted to raising live stock. With the advent of railroads into the western plains and the application of improved "dry farming" methods, the entire state has rapidly become agricultural. Irrigation is practiced to some extent in the vicinity of the Black Hills, especially in the valley of the Belle Fourche River. Wheat and corn are the most profitable crops, and over three and one-half million acres are devoted to each. Oats, barley, potatoes, hay, flaxseed, apples and small fruits are also valuable products. In the production of spring wheat, South Dakota is surpassed only by North Dakota. The annual yield in the four leading states is about as follows: North Dakota, 95,000,000 bushels; South Dakota, 32,800,000; Montana, 31,650,000; Minnesota, 16,200,000. South Dakota is third in production of flaxseed.

Manufacture. The chief manufacturing industries are connected with the agricultural activities, and include the making of butter, cheese and condensed milk, and flour and grist milling. Printing and publishing, the manufacture of lumber and lumber products and the production of various commodities for home needs are other lines of manufacture. Sioux Falls is an important meat-pack-

cago, Saint Paul, Minneapolis and Omaha; Great Northern; Illinois Central; Minneapolis and Saint Louis; and Minneapolis, Saint Paul & Saint Ste. Marie.

Government. The legislature consists of a senate of not fewer than 25 nor more than 45 members, and house of representatives of not fewer than 75 nor more than 135 members. The sessions are biennial and are lim-



ing center. The percentage of increase in the manufactures of the state when conditions are favorable is indicated in the following: increase from 1923 to 1927, 34 per cent; from 1925 to 1927, 30 per cent; from 1927 to 1929, 17.7 per cent; from 1923 to 1929, 106.4 per cent.

Transportation. Railroads reach all parts of the state. Steam railways are about 4,200 miles in length; the electric lines, 16 miles. Of the 5,900 miles of highways about 4,450 are surfaced. Eleven principal bus lines are in operation. There are 21 airports and landing fields well distributed over the state. The following lines of railroad operate in South Dakota: Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific; Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific; Chi-

ited to periods of 60 days, except in cases of impeachment.

The state's executive department consists of a governor, a lieutenant-governor, a secretary of state, a treasurer, a superintendent of public instruction, a commissioner of schools and public lands, a commissioner of insurance, a state auditor, and an attorney-general, all elected for two years. The courts consist of the supreme court, with five judges elected for six years, and state district courts, one in each district, presided over by judges elected for four years. County judges are elected, one in each county, for two years. Capital punishment was abolished in 1915, and since then other progressive laws have been passed, including legislation prohibi-

Items of Interest on South Dakota

The Indian reservations are the Lower Brule, Cheyenne River, Crow Creek, Pine Ridge, Rosebud, Sisseton, and Yankton

The state is governed under its original constitution of 1889, but this has been amended several times

South Dakota was the first state in the Union to adopt the initiative and referendum: under the constitutional amendment of 1898, on petition of five per cent of the legal voters the legislature must submit to popular vote at the next general election measures which they wish enacted as such, or measures already passed by the legislature which have not already become effective

The governor's veto does not apply to laws passed by popular vote.

Elementary agriculture was added to the studies in all rural schools in 1909.

When the state was admitted into the Union two sections of land, 640 acres each, were set aside for school purposes

The first national bank in the state was organized at Yankton in 1872

The first authentic reports of explorations in the Dakotas were made by the Lewis and Clark expedition in 1804 and 1806; other explorers were John C. Fremont in 1838 and 1839, and John J. Audubon in 1843.

The only extensive forest region is in the Black Hills, where there is a national forest reserve of more than 1,000,000 acres.

Questions on South Dakota

What is the area of South Dakota?
How does it rank in size among the states?

Where have the people come from to settle South Dakota?

What is the origin of the name "Bad Lands"?

Describe the drainage system of the state

What is the chief mineral, and what is the state's rank in its production?

How does South Dakota rank in the production of spring wheat? Flaxseed?

ing the liquor traffic, granting women the right to vote and providing for workmen's compensation.

Education. The state educational institutions are controlled by a board of regents consisting of five members appointed by the governor for a term of six years. These institutions consist of the University of South Dakota at Vermillion, the State School of Mines, at Rapid City, a teachers' college and industrial school at Aberdeen; the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts at Brookings; and three state normal schools located at Madison, Spearfish and Springfield. There are also several denominational colleges in the state. Augustana College, and Sioux Falls College, at Sioux Falls; Dakota Wesleyan University at Mitchell; Huron College at Huron; and Yankton College at Yankton. There are in addition three junior colleges

Other Institutions. The leading institutions are the hospital for the insane at Yankton, a school for the feeble-minded at Redfield, schools for deaf mutes and blind at Sioux Falls, an institution for the blind at Gary, a soldiers' home at Hot Springs, a tuberculosis sanitarium at Sanator, a reform school at Plankinton and a penitentiary at Sioux Falls.

History. In 1803 this region was an unexplored wilderness, the home of wild animals and savage Indians. In 1804 Lewis and Clark camped at the junction of the James River and the Missouri. But Fort Pierre was the first permanent settlement, it was made by Joseph La Framboise in 1817. (The post was visited by a steamboat in 1831; this event greatly assisted in the development of fur trading)

Additional facts on the early history of South Dakota may be found in the article NORTH DAKOTA, subhead *History*. The state of South Dakota was formed by the division of Dakota Territory in November, 1889, after a great immigration to the region had caused it to become important as a wheat-producing territory. Since its admission into the Union, the state has progressed rapidly along all lines of development

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

CITIES AND TOWNS		
Aberdeen	Mitchell	Sioux Falls
Lead	Pierre	Watertown
		Yankton

HILLS AND RIVERS	
Bad Lands	Minnesota River
Black Hills	Missouri River

HISTORY

Custer, George A. Miles, Nelson A.
Lewis and Clark Sitting Bull
Expedition

SOUTHERN CROSS, a constellation of the Southern hemisphere, consisting of four stars in the same relation to one another as the ends of a somewhat irregular cross. The lowest star of the group is of the first magnitude, the northern and eastern are of the second magnitude, and the western of the third. The imaginary upright bar of the cross points to the South Pole.

SOUTHEY, ROBERT (1774-1843), an English poet and miscellaneous writer, the son of a linen draper of Bristol. He was sent to Westminster School in 1788 and soon gave proof of distinguished talents; but he was dismissed in 1792 for a satirical paper on flogging, published in a school journal. Shortly afterward he entered Balliol College, Oxford, where he remained but two years. He formed an acquaintance with Coleridge, and they were married on the same day to two sisters; but the scheme for the founding of an ideal community on the banks of the Susquehanna, in the carrying out of which their marriage was the first step, failed for lack of funds. In 1804 Southey fixed his permanent residence at Greta, near Keswick, in the heart of the English lake district, where he had Wordsworth and Coleridge for neighbors. From this period his intellectual activity was waning, and he continued for a period of almost forty years to issue annually at least one, and often several, works, besides contributing largely to different periodicals. A government pension of £160 (\$800) was allowed him in 1807, and this was increased in 1835 to £460 (\$2,300). In 1813 he was appointed poet laureate. Having lost his first wife, he married, in 1839, Caroline Anne Bowles, herself a writer of some eminence. Soon afterward he sank into a state of imbecility, from which he did not recover. Among his poetical productions may be mentioned *Joan of Arc*, *Thalaba*, *Madoc*, *The Curse of Kehama*, *Roderick*, *The Last of the Goths* and a *Vision of Judgment*. His prose writings, including his letters, are models of literary expression. *Life of Nelson*, *Life of Wesley*, *History of Brazil* and *The Doctor* are among those still read for their lucid and beautiful style.

SOUTH MOUNTAIN, BATTLE OF, a battle fought September 14, 1862, near Sharpsburg, Md., between a Confederate force of 18,000

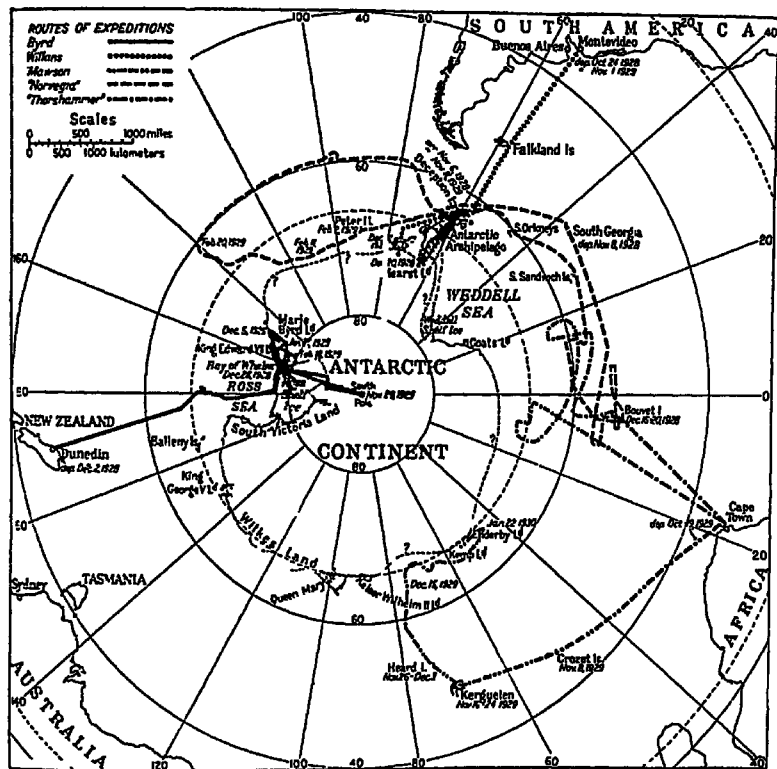
from Lee's Army of Northern Virginia and a Federal force of 28,000 from McClellan's Army of the Potomac. The Confederates were compelled to retreat, after offering a stubborn resistance, and took up a position along Antietam Creek, where another severe battle was fought September 18. The losses at South Mountain were, of the Federals, 1,800, of the Confederates, 2,600.



SOUTH POLAR EXPLORATION. Previous to the latter half of the nineteenth century comparatively little attention was given to exploration in the Antarctic regions. The first navigator known to have crossed the Antarctic Circle was Captain James Cook, who in 1773-'74 explored a portion of the land mass sur-

rounding the South Pole. Later explorations confirmed Cook's discovery, and existence of the continent of Antarctica is now undisputed. While the shoreline of this great land mass has not been fully surveyed, it is estimated to have an area of over 5,000,000 square miles, making it about twice the size of Australia. It has an average elevation of 2,000 feet and mountains exceeding 15,000 feet in altitude. Different sections of this continent have been discovered by various explorers, each believing that he had found a separate land mass, and giving it a distinct name, so we find on the south polar maps Wilkes Land, South Victoria Land, King Edward VII Land, etc., all probably belonging to one great land mass.

Discovery of the South Pole. Captain Roald Amundsen, a Norwegian navigator, discovered the South Pole on December 16, 1911. Amundsen set sail from Norway in the *Fram* in 1910, with the intention of passing around Cape Horn, and entering the Arctic Ocean through Bering Strait, where he intended to spend several years in scientific investigation. But he changed his mind, and when he reached Cape Horn he turned southward. Reaching land in January, 1911, he established headquarters on the ice cap and lived there during the winter. Several supply stations were located on the route which the explorers were to follow. On October 21, Amundsen, with four companions, fifty-two dogs and four sledges, started for



Map by W. L. G. Joerg. Copyright, 1930, by the American Geographical Society of New York

MAP OF SOUTH POLAR EXPLORATIONS

On this map of the South Polar region are shown the routes of some of the most important expeditions in recent years, including that of Admiral Richard Byrd in 1928-1929. Byrd returned to the same field of exploration in 1933-1934

the Pole, which was reached without mishap on December 16. Their journey was over a plateau from 3,000 to 11,000 feet high. Amundsen erected a tent at the Pole, and raised the Norwegian flag. He named the land King Haakon VII Plateau. The expedition reached headquarters January 12, after an absence of ninety-nine days.

Scott's Expedition. Captain Robert F. Scott of England, who in 1900 had made valuable explorations in the Antarctic regions, started on his second expedition at about the same time as Amundsen. Both

parties were striving at the same time to reach the Pole, though by different routes and unknown to each other. Scott reached the Pole January 18, 1912, where he found Amundsen's tent and flag. On their return to headquarters the entire party of five died from privation and exposure. The scientific results of this expedition were of high value.

Shackleton's Expedition. In 1909 Lieutenant (now Sir Ernest) Shackleton commanded an expedition which made valuable explorations in the Antarctic regions.

Shackleton ascended Mount Erebus, an active volcano, which he found to have an altitude of 13,379 feet and a crater 900 feet deep. On another journey Shackleton went within 111 miles of the Pole, when the company was compelled to turn back because of lack of supplies. Although Shackleton did not reach the Pole, it is generally conceded that his expedition solved the South Polar problem. Several side expeditions by Shackleton's party collected valuable scientific data. A second expedition, from which he returned in 1917, left Buenos Aires October 27, 1914, in the *Endurance*. Their ship was caught in the ice pack and was finally crushed and sunk. After enduring almost incredible hardships the party was saved by a reserve ship which Shackleton secured by making a voyage of 750 miles to New Zealand in a small boat.

Byrd's Expedition. Commander Richard E. Byrd's expedition to the South Polar regions in 1929 ranks as the most successful of modern times. Early in 1929, with a veteran group of explorers, scientists and airmen, equipped with airplanes, sledges, photographs and other scientific apparatus, and provisions for a possible year's stay in the Antarctic, Byrd established his base at the Bay of Whales, Little America. From this point exploring parties, by sledge, and airplane, explored the region toward the pole, mapping the area covered and making notes of land formation, prevailing winds and weather.

On Nov. 28-29, piloted by Bernt Balchen, and with two other companions, Byrd flew to the South Pole and returned safely to his base. The trip of about 1,000 miles was made in 19 hours. In 1933-1934 Byrd (then rear admiral) spent another winter at Little America, continuing his scientific researches.

Early Expeditions. Captain Cook is the first who is known to have sailed within the Antarctic Circle. He reached the southernmost point attained by him, on Jan. 30, 1774, 71° 10' S. and 107° W. In 1840 two important exploring expeditions, one American, the other French, reached the Southern seas. The American expedition, under Wilkes, passed very near the southern magnetic pole, the position of which, at the time, he calculated to be 70° south latitude and 140° east longitude; it also traced land from longitude 154° 27' to 97° 30' east, which Wilkes concluded to be continuous. The French expedition,

under Dumont d'Urville, found traces of what they believed to be a continuous coast from 136° to 142° east, to which they gave the name of Adèle Land. An English expedition under James Clark Ross in 1839 passed the Antarctic Circle in about longitude 178° east, and in 172° 36' east longitude and 70° 41' south latitude he found a continuous coast, trending south, with mountain peaks 9,000 to 12,000 feet in height. He gave the country the name of South Victoria Land. In 77° 32' south latitude, 167° east longitude, he discovered an active volcano, Mount Erebus.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Antarctic Ocean	Scott, Robert Fulton
Amundsen, Roald	Shackleton, Ernest H

SOUTH SEA COMPANY, a company organized in England in 1711 by the lord treasurer Harley, with the exclusive right to trade in what was then known as the South Sea. In less than ten years after its establishment, the South Sea Company proposed to assume the national debt, which had by that time become £30,000,000. A number of the directors of the company began to dispose of their shares in 1720, and the weakened confidence which resulted from this, together with the failure of Law's Mississippi Scheme in France, brought about the collapse of the entire scheme. Thousands of shareholders were ruined. On investigation, the company was found to be fraudulent, the property of the directors was seized, and approximately a third of the original investment was returned to the stockholders.

SOUTHWEST AFRICA, formerly German Southwest Africa (which see).

SOVEREIGN, *sov' ur in*, a gold coin in current use in England, the value of which is £1, and the weight 123 274 grains troy. It is .916 pure metal. Half-sovereigns, 2-pound pieces and 5-pound pieces are also coined in the same proportion of weight and purity. The crown is equal to a quarter-sovereign. The sovereign of to-day bears the likeness of the ruler.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Crown	Guinea	Pound
Farthing	Penny	Shilling

SOVEREIGNTY, *sov' er in ti*. The word *sovereignty* is used in two different senses—to denote what is technically called *internal* sovereignty, that is, supremacy over the citizens of a state and to denote *external* sovereignty, that is, complete independence of any

other state. When used with reference to the internal affairs of a state, sovereignty may be either *legal* or *political*. The latter refers to the power which has ultimate control over all the state activities; thus, in the United States the people would be the political sovereign. Legal sovereignty refers to the organ of government which expresses the will of the political sovereign.

Characteristics of Sovereignty. Internal sovereignty has certain attributes: (1) It is *absolute*, that is, there can be no limitation upon its powers or activities. Practically, no government has absolute internal sovereignty, since every modern government is limited, either by a constitution or by some act or decree which granted rights which by prescription or for some other cause are now inviolable. (2) Sovereignty is said to be *indivisible*, that is, there cannot be two sovereigns with authority over the same territory. In a federal government either the whole people are the sovereign, and the state and central governments are the instruments of its sovereignty, or each state is a sovereign and the central government acts only in certain matters for the general good. An externally sovereign state theoretically is one which is absolutely independent of all other states. However, in practice this is impossible, and states which have practically surrendered every power in their relation to other states are still considered sovereign. See STATE; GOVERNMENT.

SOVIET, a Russian term meaning *committee*, or *local council*, which came into general use at the time of the revolution which overthrew the imperial government. When the czar was forced to abdicate, soviets by hundreds came into existence over the country, in villages, factories, among the soldiers, etc. These soviets assumed authority as administrative bodies, and in course of time they became the real source of power, forcing Kerensky out of the government and giving the leadership to Lenin. The Russian soviet government is the executive committee of a vast number of village, town and city soviets. For details of this movement, see RUSSIA, subhead *The Soviets*.

SOWING, *so'ing*, **MACHINE**, **SEEDER**, or **DRILL**, a machine for planting grain. Among the simplest and earliest forms of this machine is a cylindrical vessel, with small holes at regular intervals around its circumference. This was used for sowing

round seeds, such as turnip seed. The machine was placed on wheels and was drawn over the land at a regulated speed; by its mere rotation the seed was delivered with considerable uniformity. A later pattern of machine had a fixed seed box, from which the delivery of the seeds was regulated by a revolving brush.

The pattern of seeder in most common use for wheat, oats and other small grains is the *drill*. This consists of a narrow box, eight or ten feet long, with circular openings in the bottom, from three to four inches apart. Connected with each of these openings is a hollow iron tube, extending down to the ground. In front of each tube is a device for making a small furrow, called the *lister*, consisting of two thin, flat pieces of steel, which meet in front and turn upward with a curve. Back of each lister is a wheel or other device for covering the grain. The box contains a revolving brush, for the purpose of distributing the grain evenly through the holes in the bottom. This can be gauged so as to allow any quantity to pass through and is thus adaptable for the sowing of different grains. As the machine is moved forward the brush revolves, and the grain falls through the drills into the furrows. A team of two horses can operate one of these drills, and on good ground it will seed from eight to ten acres in a day.

SOW THISTLE, *son this'*, a European weed belonging to the composite family, several species of which have been introduced into America. In parts of Europe it is used by the peasantry as a vegetable. The most common species grows to a height of two or three feet and has a branching stem and small yellow flowers, about three quarters of an inch in diameter. It spreads very rapidly, by means of its creeping roots and light seeds, blown about by the wind, and is a nuisance in pastures and grain fields. It can be eradicated only by careful cultivation and by planting other crops to smother its growth.

SOY BEAN, a bushy plant from two to four feet in height, native to China, but now grown on an increasingly large scale in the United States. It is a plant of economic importance, and an expanding source of profit to agriculture. Eighteen per cent of the mature bean consists of oil. More than half of this oil is utilized in paints, where it is supplanting linseed oil, and in varnishes, enamels, and lacquers; the remainder finds uses

in salads, breakfast cereals, flour, canned products, etc. In paints soy-bean oil holds its original color longer than linseed oil. The automotive industry purchases this oil in great quantities now for body-finishing, the demand is in excess of the supply. Before the economic importance of the soy bean was realized, it was a forage crop only, the seed being sown broadcast and the plant cut while in bloom. When intended for bean harvest, the plant is cut as the pods mature.



SPAIN, a republic of Southwestern Europe. Both geographically and historically it forms a connecting link between Europe and Africa. To the latter continent it was once attached, and now nearly touches it. Of all the countries of Europe, Spain has most persistently preserved its local differences of race and language; of all European countries it presents the most striking contrasts and the greatest diversity of land and people. Parched, treeless plains are broken by bleak, rocky uplands and ragged sierras. There are luxuriant fields and gardens crossed by winding streams, and, again, barren regions of perpetual snow. Every summer heat alternates with biting winter cold.

The people of the several sections are as unlike as the land. Spain, once the most powerful nation of Europe, abounds in relics of its glorious past—a past made resplendent by mighty conquests, vast wealth and brilliant achievement. It has not kept pace with material progress, but is to-day one of the most fascinating countries of the continent—a land of beauty and romance, of quaint tradition, of picturesque customs and manners.

Location and General Features. Spain occupies about six-sevenths of the Iberian peninsula, and has an area of 190,050 square miles. With the Canary and Balearic islands and the possessions on the north and west coast of Africa, it has an area of 196,607 square miles. Its southern and eastern shores are washed by the Mediterranean Sea, its northern coasts by the Bay of Biscay. In the northwest and southwest it meets the At-

lantic, but along most of its western boundary Portugal intervenes to separate it from the sea. France forms less than half of its northern boundary.

The Land and Waterways. The predominating feature of Spain is a great interior plateau, which occupies about three-fourths of the peninsula. This plateau has an elevation varying from 1,000 to 3,000 feet, and is for the most part treeless. It is crossed by numerous mountain ridges, called *sierras*, the most important of which are the Sierra de Guadarrama and the Sierra de Gredos. At its northern limits rise the Cantabrian Mountains, and at its southern boundary are the Sierra Morena. The loftiest mountains wholly within the country are the Sierra Nevada, in the south, the loftiest peak of which is Mulhacén (11,664 feet), the highest point in Europe outside of the Alps and Caucasus. In the Pyrenees, which form a mighty barrier in the north, the highest summit in Spanish territory is Pico de Aneto (11,160 feet). The elevated land reaches to the sea in many places along the southeastern and eastern shore, terminating in cliffs. Alternating with these are great curving beaches. The northwestern shores are deeply indented, while in the southwest the coast is mostly marshes and sand dunes.

The rivers of Spain are of comparatively little economic value. Few are navigable, and all are too far below the general elevation to be useful for irrigation. All the long rivers except one discharge into the Atlantic. The Douro and Tagus flow west across Portugal. The Guadiana, which forms part of the Portuguese boundary, and the Guadalquivir, the deepest stream in Spain, which crosses the great Andalusian plain, both enter the sea on the southwest. The Ebro, which crosses the great plain of Aragon, draining the northeastern section, flows into the Mediterranean. There are no lakes of importance; the largest is Albufera, near Valencia.

Climate. The widest range of temperate climate prevails. There is not only great variation between seasons, particularly in the tablelands, but also extreme changes between the temperature of the days and nights. In the central parts the rivers freeze in winter, while in summer the temperature often rises to 107 degrees. In the hot season the rivers, owing to insufficient rainfall, run low or become dry, and the ground becomes so

parched that whole communities sometimes have to move. Southern Spain is delightful in winter, when rainfall and temperature combine to produce a subtropical vegetation. In summer this region is visited by the *solano*, a hot south wind which often blows for two weeks without ceasing. The northwestern provinces, on the Atlantic, have a moist and equable climate.

People. The Spanish are a bright and vivacious people, most of them dark-skinned and short of stature. They have been called idle, impractical dreamers, accused of vanity and love of show; but, though they shun the slavery of constant labor, they are nevertheless energetic and ambitious. Dreamers they may be, with vivid imaginations for magnificent projects they cannot execute. They esteem themselves highly, but are quick to see merit in others and defects in themselves. The love of pomp and splendor is but a natural heritage of a people with so splendid a past. The dominant characteristics of the typical Spaniard are independence and personal dignity. Under ordinary circumstances he is courteous, affable and witty, with a freshness of speech delightful to foreigners. He is nearly always violent in his loves and in his hatred.

The Spanish people are of a strongly individual character. They have preserved through the centuries the strain of the Iberians, the original inhabitants of the peninsula, only slightly modified by Roman, Teutonic and Berber invasions. The population is smaller than that of any other country of equal opportunity for growth. According to the latest estimate (1933) it is 24,012,430. A large percentage lives under rural conditions. Barcelona is the largest city (1,041,865 population); Madrid, the capital, has 993,645. Valencia is third (334,129); following in order are Sevilla, Malaga, and five others exceeding 100,000. There are seventeen others each with more than 50,000.

Education and Religion. Education in Spain has not kept pace with the general trend of educational advancement. However, since 1901, when it was found that sixty-six per cent of the people were illiterate, far-reaching reforms have been in progress. The law of compulsory attendance has been enforced, more primary schools have been opened; illiteracy was only 45 per cent in 1934. The secondary schools, of which there are about 90 prepare for the univer-

sities, of which there are eleven; the largest is in Madrid. The government also maintains commercial and technical schools and inspects regularly schools under private ownership.

Though nearly all the people are Roman Catholics, the new republic bans an official religion; all religions are now on an equal basis. Under the kingdom before 1931 the State supported the Catholic clergy and provided Church buildings, but support has been withdrawn, and all Church property is subject to nationalization. Sixty-six cathedrals, 20,000 parish churches, and 17,000 chapels were affected by the new law.

Language and Literature. Spanish is one of the Romance languages, being derived directly from ancient Latin. Three dialects are spoken—the Galician, in the northern provinces, the Catalan in the south and southeast, and the Castilian in the central part of the country. The last is the language of the court and of the Spanish-American republics.

Spanish literature began, like the literature of most other countries, in songs descriptive of the great deeds of heroes. The earliest of these songs which is extant is one on the Cid (see CID, THE), the manuscript of which dates from the fourteenth century. Fiction writing began in the fourteenth century, and from that century or the next dates the *Amadis of Gaul*, the most famous of medieval romances. The Golden Age of literature in Spain began in the sixteenth century, and lasted until the second half of the seventeenth. Of the scores of famous men who wrote during this period, the greatest were the poets Calderon de la Barca and Lope de Vega, and the novelist Cervantes (see CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, MIGUEL DE). Literature declined in Spain during the late seventeenth century, and the eighteenth century produced few writers of note. The imitation of French literature, which grew up in the latter half of the eighteenth century, had in some ways beneficial effects, as in the drama particularly there were productions of worth. The romantic movement which swept over Europe in the early nineteenth century affected Spain with the other countries, and poets, as well as prose writers, showed its influence. Of the last half of the nineteenth century the most notable literary form in Spain was the novel. A novelist of present-day fame was Vicente Blasco Ibanez; his *Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse* is a story of the World War.

Art. See PAINTING.

Mineral Resources. Spain is one of the richest countries of Europe in mineral resources. It produces more lead, copper and quicksilver than any other country on the continent. Other minerals that are abundant are iron, salt, silver and coal, and there are valuable deposits of zinc, manganese, sulphur and phosphorus. Before the discovery of mercury in California, Spain had the most productive mercury mines in the world, but is now below California and Texas. These and salt mines are the only mines owned and operated by the government. Most of the others are worked by foreign companies, but many are as yet undeveloped. The yearly output amounts approximately to \$65,000,000.

Agriculture. Spain is above all else an agricultural country, but for centuries under the monarchy the area given to farming was restricted to a degree because much land was held in hundreds of vast estates by the aristocracy. Some nobles practiced agriculture indifferently; others employed their holdings as hunting preserves or for other pleasures. The new republican government has taken many of these estates from the landed classes and has caused them to be cut into small holdings for intensive agriculture. A survey discloses that 87 per cent of all land in Spain is productive or can be made so. Modern machinery is being introduced.

There are several distinct agricultural districts, which, owing to surface and climatic differences, have widely diversified interests. In the southern provinces, bordering on the Mediterranean, known as the gardens, every part of available ground is brought under tillage. The land is terraced, fertilized and irrigated by canals supplied from reservoirs. Large crops of oranges, lemons, grapes and other fruits are produced. In the extreme south almonds, figs, date palms, bananas and sugar cane are cultivated. In the interior the intense heat and dryness interfere with the successful pursuit of agriculture, and there are large areas of waste land. The northwestern provinces have diversified farming interests, and stock-raising is profitable. Here the fruits common to Central Europe are cultivated in abundance, and wheat, barley, oats, rye and other cereals are grown. One of the chief crops of Spain is the vine, grown in every province. Not only are large quantities of grapes and raisins exported, but millions of gallons of wine. More than 4,800,-

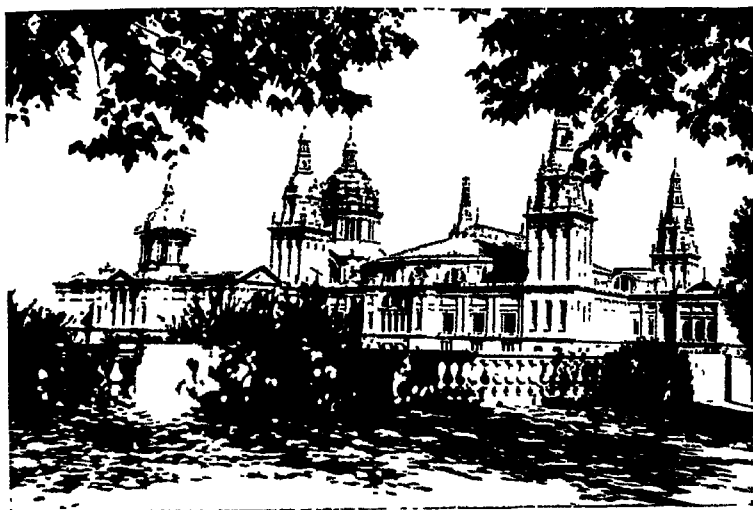
000 acres are planted in olives. Spain is the home of the Merino sheep, large numbers of which are raised.

Although the fisheries are important, they fail to supply the home demand, and the importation of fish is large. The catch consists chiefly of sardines, tunny and cod.

Manufactures. The manufactures are limited and are not sufficient to supply the home demand. Catalonia, in the northeastern part of Spain, is the leading manufacturing province. Following this, in the order of importance, are the districts of Galicia, Asturias and Vizcaya, which have an abundance of water power. A few of the large towns in the interior, including Madrid, Seville and Toledo, also have some manufactures. Barcelona is the chief manufacturing city of the country, and the leading industries include the manufacture of textiles, metal, paper and leather, and lace making. The provinces Valencia, Murcia and Andalusia manufacture some silk and woolen goods. The manufacture of tobacco is of importance in Madrid, Seville, Valencia and other towns. There are also manufactures of gold and silverware, jewelry, sugar, olive oil, cork, glass and porcelain.

Government. Spain a second republic has been in existence since April, 1931; the first was a short-lived government from 1873 to 1875. The traditional monarchy ended with the flight of the king from the country, but he refused to abdicate, believing that some day he would be called back; he held to the monarchists' disbelief in democracy.

The new republic has a President for its executive head, who is elected for six years, and cannot be reelected until after the lapse of one term. He must be at least forty years of age, a citizen of Spain, and not an army officer for ten years, member of the former royal family, or minister or priest. The legislative power is vested in an elective body of one house, for which the historic name Cortes is retained. Any citizen at least twenty-three years old may be elected to membership, and there is no legal bar to continuous reelection. The Cortes convenes twice each year—in February and October—with sessions limited to three and two months, respectively. When the Cortes is not in session, the President may enact laws by decree, subject to later legislative approval. Both men and women are voters at the age of twenty-one.



Underwood & Underwood

EXAMPLES OF SPANISH ARCHITECTURE

Above. The National Palace, Barcelona Exposition

Below Palace of Antique Arts, Seville Exposition



Arms

BARCELONA CIVIL GUARDS

Posted with a machine gun to maintain order during anarchist rioting.



Erving Galloway

HAULING WOOL TO MARKET IN SPAIN

The tandem originated when roads were narrow, a custom still popular all over Spain.

Army and Navy. Military service is compulsory in the new republic, as it was in the former monarchy, but the terms are less rigorous than formerly. Though each man must be ready for service for eighteen years, a youth now serves only two years normally in the regular army and five years in the First Reserves: the remaining eleven years he remains on the reserved list. In all branches of the army in Spain there are about 120,000 officers and men; in the African service, about 48,000. In addition, the Civil Guard (the constabulary) and the Carabineros (military police) are under military training and discipline.

The navy is small, but is not allowed to deteriorate. It consists of two battleships, seven cruisers, thirteen submarines, and the necessary auxiliary vessels.

Colonies. All of Spain's colonial possessions are in Africa or adjacent to its shores. They include Rio de Oro and Adrar, on the Sahara Coast; the Muni River settlements, on the banks of the Muni and Camp rivers, and the Gulf of Guinea, also called Spanish Guinea; and the islands of Fernando Po, Annobon, Corisco and the Elobey Islands in the Gulf of Guinea. These possessions are a liability rather than an asset; cost of government exceeds returns. Politically the Canary and Balearic Islands are an integral part of Spain. Rio de Oro and Adrar are administered by the governor of the Canary Islands; the other possessions are governed from Santa Isabel, capital of Fernando Po.

History. When the Phoenicians landed in Spain and began colonization, probably at the end of the twelfth century B. C., they found the country inhabited by a race of mingled Celtic and Iberian stock, to whom the name Celtiberians has been given. After the Phoenicians came the Greeks, but the history of Spain did not really begin until the third century B. C., when the Carthaginians conquered almost the entire peninsula. Hamilcar Barca, Hasdrubal and Hannibal were the three great generals who established the empire of Carthage in Spain. As a result of the Punic wars, the Cathaginians were driven from Spain and the Romans came into possession of the territory. Not until 19 B. C., however, was the entire peninsula brought into subjection to Rome. Three provinces were formed from the conquered territory, and these were prosperous and powerful under the Roman rule.

In the early part of the fifth century, A. D., the Visigoths entered Spain and there established a kingdom. For three centuries the Gothic rule continued, but in 711 the Arabs overthrew the Visigothic king and made the greater part of Spain a dependency of the caliph. Gradually, in the mountainous districts of the Pyrenees, independent Christian kingdoms were established, and these small states were constantly at war among themselves for supremacy. In the eleventh century, Aragon and Castile emerged as the most powerful, and little by little they absorbed the other states. Fortunately for these two new powers, the Ommiad dynasty of the Moors, which had been in power for almost three centuries, became extinct in the eleventh century, and the subsequent division of the Mohammedan territory into small independent states favored the expansion of the Christian states. By the early part of the thirteenth century the Moorish dominion in Spain had been almost entirely overthrown by the united efforts of Castile, Navarre and Aragon, and even the Kingdom of Granada, the only Moorish kingdom which remained, was forced to admit the supremacy of Castile in all matters affecting the two provinces.

By the marriage of Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon, these two countries were united (1479), and they were thus enabled to undertake the conquest of what remained of Moorish power in Spain. After a ten years' war, Ferdinand and Isabella in 1492 entered Granada, the Moorish capital, and thus became the sovereigns of all Spain, with the exception of Navarre. Twenty years later Navarre, except the part north of the Pyrenees, was also taken by Ferdinand, and all Spain became united under one ruler.

The next hundred years was the period of Spain's greatest glory. The discovery of America opened up new opportunities for the growth of the kingdom. The grandson of Ferdinand, Charles V, gained to the country the Netherlands and Milan. In time Mexico, Peru, Central America, Venezuela, Cuba, Chile, Jamaica and Santo Domingo were conquered, and these poured into the royal treasury a stream of wealth. Parts of Africa were also conquered, and the Spice Islands, Malacca and the Philippines were acquired. The European territory added included Portugal, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, the Canary and Balearic islands. Spain was then the most powerful nation of Europe.

The tyranny and bigotry of Philip II, son of Charles V, and of his successors, Philip III and Philip IV, were among the immediate causes of the decline of Spain. Religious persecution, civil wars and insurrections seriously weakened the kingdom. The loss of The Netherlands was a great blow to the country, and the wars with England worked great damage to the Spanish navy. With Charles II (1665-1700), the Hapsburg dynasty became extinct in its male line, and only by the disastrous War of the Spanish Succession were the claims to the throne settled. Philip of Anjou was recognized as king and ruled as Philip V, the first of the Bourbon line in Spain.

Ferdinand VI (1746-1759) and Charles III (1759-1788) both introduced reforms into the government and strengthened the state somewhat, but Charles IV (1788-1808) was not as strong a ruler as his two predecessors, and all that had been gained under them was lost. In 1808 affairs had come to such a state that Charles gave up the throne to his son Ferdinand. Napoleon compelled Charles and Ferdinand to renounce all claims to the Spanish crown, which he conferred on his brother, Joseph Bonaparte. The Spanish people refused to recognize the Bonapartes as their rulers and declared for Ferdinand. In 1814 Ferdinand again entered Madrid as king. From this time until 1868 the Bourbon dynasty reigned uninterruptedly. In 1868 a revolt arose, headed by Prim, and the queen, Isabella, was driven from the country.

The attempt of the Spanish to find for themselves a ruler, led indirectly to the Franco-German War. From December, 1870, to early in 1873, Amadeus, son of Victor Emmanuel of Italy, reigned as king at Madrid, and after his abdication a republic was organized. The republic proved unpopular, and in 1875 the monarchy was reestablished, with Alfonso XII, son of Isabella, as king. Alfonso reigned for ten years, and his posthumous son, Alphonso XIII, succeeded him, with Christina, his mother, as regent. A rebellion in Cuba was met with the greatest severity, and complications ensued which led, in 1898, to war with the United States, the result of which was the loss to Spain of Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands. General political unrest and distrust of government officials led to a bloodless revolution in September, 1923. The military chiefs assumed control of affairs. King Alfonso

yielded, and General Primo de Rivera was made practical dictator of Spain.

In 1930 unrest caused Rivera's downfall. Republican sentiment grew strong within the next year, and in April, 1931, King Alfonso XIII yielded his throne, though he did not abdicate, and fled to Paris. A republic was formed; the first administration met stormy resistance from growing radicalism among the people. In 1936 opposing elements began a civil war against the second administration, elected a few months previously and which was almost communistic. The rebels sought to impose Fascist rule upon Spain, and bloody excesses followed on both sides. Political complications were grave, and all Europe sought means to avert a general war.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

CITIES		
Barcelona	Cordoba	Murcia
Bilbao	Granada	Saragossa
Cadiz	Madrid	Seville
Cartagena	Malaga	Valencia
HISTORY		
Alfonso XIII	Isabella of Castile	
Alhambra	Maria Christina	
Alva, Duke of	Moors	
Aragon	Napoleon	
Armada	Navarre	
Castile	Peninsular War	
Charles V (Holy	Philip II and V	
Roman Emperor)	Spanish-American War	
Ferdinand V	Succession War	
Gonsalvo de Cordova	Torquemada, Thomas	
Granada	de	
Hamilcar Barca	United States, subhead	
Hannibal	History	
Iberia		
ISLANDS		
Canary	Balearic	
MOUNTAINS		
Pyrenees	Sierra Nevada	
RIVERS		
Douro	Guadiana	
Guadalquivir		

SPANIEL, *span'yei*, the name given to several breeds of dogs which include field and water hunting dogs, and several smaller breeds of the fancy, or "toy," variety. They are characterized by a rather broad muzzle, remarkably long, full ears, plentiful and beautifully-waved hair. The prevailing colors of most breeds are liver and white, although some are red and white, black and white, or deep brown or black on the face and breast, with a tan spot over each eye.

Kinds of Spaniels. The Irish breeds constitute the best known water spaniels. Among the most popular field hunting spaniels are the *Cumber*, *Sussex*, *Norfolk* and *Cocker*. The *King Charles*, a small variety, common as a lapdog, is usually black and tan or brown and has a large head and a small, well-coated body. In addition to the King

Charles, the *Blenheim* and the *Japanese* are well-known lap spaniels. The *Maltese* is also a small species of spaniel. The *water spaniels*, large and small, differ from the common spaniel only in the roughness of their coats. They are fond of the water and make excellent retrievers. Their intelligence, affection and obedience, combined with their beauty, make spaniels highly prized as house dogs. See Dog

SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR, the war between Spain and the United States in 1898, was of short duration, but important in its effect upon the history of the world

Cause of the War. The war's fundamental cause was the inability or unwillingness of Spain to govern Cuba according to principles of freedom and justice. It was a result of nearly a half-century of disagreement and negotiation, during which the United States often had proposed to purchase the island, in order to remove the menace to American industries and peace, while the island itself had been in almost constant turmoil from rebellion and accompanying oppression. The last insurrection began in 1895, and despite the most determined efforts of Spain, through severe measures undertaken by its governors-general, Campos, Weyler and Blanco, the Cubans had succeeded in establishing a semblance of an independent government and had maintained more or less successful warfare against the Spanish army.

Declaration of War. The interest of the United States government became more and more centered upon Cuban affairs, and finally the United States battleship *Maine* was sent to Havana to protect American interests. On the night of February 15, 1898, the vessel was destroyed by an explosion. Though responsibility could not be placed upon Spanish officials, the American people were convinced that it was the result of a deliberate plot, and public sentiment forced Congress soon to declare war (April 25). Meanwhile, it had declared that "the people of Cuba are and of right ought to be free and independent," demanded that Spain relinquish her authority in the island, and authorized President McKinley to use the army and navy of the United States to accomplish that end.

Naval Engagements; Campaigns. The first gun of the war was fired April 23 by the *Nashville*, in the capture of a Spanish merchantman. Commodore Sampson, with

the North Atlantic naval squadron, began a blockade of Havana and the north coast, while volunteer troops to the number of 200,000 were soon recruited, drilled and equipped at several camps.

The first important engagement was at Manila Bay, where Commodore George Dewey, in command of the Asiatic squadron, completely annihilated the Spanish fleet. Troops were immediately sent to the Philippines under General Merritt, and an attack by the land and naval forces led to the fall of Manila on August 13. Meantime, a Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera reached Cuban waters and took a position in the harbor of Santiago, on the southern coast of Cuba, where it was blockaded by an American fleet under Sampson and Schley. It was during this blockade that Lieutenant Hobson and a crew of volunteers attempted to bottle the entrance to the harbor by sinking the collier *Merrimac*.

Land Campaigns. In June, General Shafter, with a force of 17,000 men, landed at a point a little east of Santiago and invested the town. The enemy gradually retired within its fortifications in Santiago, offering the only important resistance at the hills of San Juan and El Caney, which were finally gained by the Americans under Major-General Shafter on July 2. On the following day Cervera, under orders from his government, attempted to break the blockade; but after a long running fight his whole squadron was beached or destroyed, and he, together with 1,700 men, was captured. The siege of the city was continued until July 15, when General Toral surrendered the whole District of Santiago.

Terms of Peace. On July 25 General Miles raised the United States flag over Porto Rico, and on the following day Spain made overtures for peace. August 12 a protocol was signed, and in December a final treaty of peace was accepted, by which Spain relinquished all claims to Cuba and surrendered Porto Rico, the Philippines and Guam to the United States, for a consideration of \$20,000,000 and special commercial privileges.

This war focussed attention upon several of its leaders. Commodores Schley and Sampson were each promoted to the rear-admiralty. Theodore Roosevelt, in command of the "Rough Riders," distinguished himself at San Juan, and on his return home was elected governor of New York.

The total expense of the war to the United States was \$165,000,000; 2,910 American soldiers lost their lives, of whom all but 306 died of disease. Because of this fearful death rate from causes other than battle, an investigation of the War Department was instigated, which, however, resulted in a general acquittal of the responsible officials.

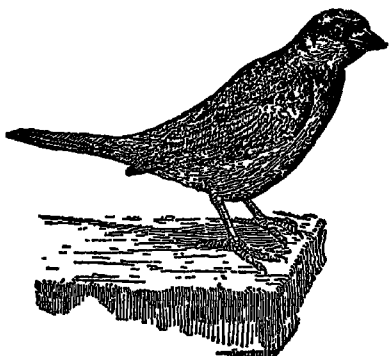
Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Cuba	Roosevelt, Theodore
Dewey, George	Rough Riders
El Caney, Battle of	Sampson, William T.
Hobson, Richmond P.	Schley, Winfield S.
McKunley, William	United States
Manila Bay, Battle of	subhead History
Philippine Islands	Weyler, Nickolau V.
Porto Rico	Wood, Leonard

SPANISH INFLUENZA. See INFLUENZA.

SPANISH SUCCESSION, *suk seah'un*, WAR OF THE. See SUCCESSION WARS.

SPARROW, the name of a large group of finches, which have, in general, a brown and gray plumage. The birds feed and nest on or near the ground, and are among the least



ENGLISH SPARROW

timid of wild birds. They chirp noisily, but comparatively few are songsters. The common *English house sparrow*, which is about six inches long, was brought to the United States and Canada about the year 1869 and has increased astonishingly in numbers, until now it is probably more numerous than any other wild bird. One pair will raise several families of four or five each year. These sparrows live chiefly in and about cities and towns.

It was once thought that sparrows were aids to the farmer, but it is now known that they eat few insects, but live chiefly upon grains and the refuse they gather near houses. They are notorious fighters among themselves,

and usually drive away the more desirable birds. Of the American species the most common is the *chipping sparrow*, a small grayish bird marked with a chestnut crown. The *field sparrow*, an eastern resident, and the *tree sparrow*, a winter visitor only, are similar species. The *sea-side* and the *sharp-tailed sparrows* inhabit the coast marshes.

There are in America several distinct species of musical sparrows. The *song sparrow*, a six-inch bird streaked on the breast with black or brown, has a remarkably clear, sweet refrain. The *vesper sparrow*, similarly marked, has a habit of singing in the late afternoon. One of the well-known sparrow songsters of the West is the *black-throated dickcissel*, while the large *fox sparrows* and *Harris sparrows* of the same regions are known to gather in flocks and sing in chorus. A beautiful little bird is the *white-throated sparrow* most familiar along the Canadian boundary, whose clear, cheery note is heard in the spring and about the summer nesting places.

SPARROW HAWK, a very small hawk, about ten inches long, which ranges from Northern Canada to Mexico. It is reddish-brown and black on the shoulders, and back and has grayish-blue wings. The nests are made in holes in trees. The eggs, numbering from five to seven, are cream-white marked with brown. The birds feed on insects, small rodents, reptiles and other enemies to the farmer, and thus render a distinct service to agriculture.

SPARTA, *sahr'ta*, or **LAOEDAEEMON**, *las e dæ'mon*, a celebrated city of ancient Greece, the capital of Laconia and the chief city of the Peloponnesus. It was a scattered city consisting of five separate sections. Unlike Athens, it was plainly built and had few notable buildings; consequently it left no imposing ruins.

The Spartans were a stern and rugged warrior race, despising danger and esteeming military glory the highest of honors. They were temperate in eating and drinking, and their food was of the plainest sort. By law they were debarred from trade and agriculture, and their chief occupation was military drill and physical exercise. The form of government was aristocratic, and the executive power was vested in two kings and five ephors. The Spartan child was trained to endure any hardships, to be self-controlled and obedient to authority. From the

age of seven to twenty he lived in a public institution and took his meals at the public table. From twenty to thirty he lived under arms in barracks, and although at thirty he was required by the law to marry, he still ate at the public table.

According to tradition, the Spartan state was founded by Lacedaemon, son of Zeus. The most celebrated of its legendary kings was Menelaus. It is believed the Spartans were the descendants of the Dorians, who invaded the Peloponnesus not later than 1000 B. C. Such of the former inhabitants of the state as did not emigrate were allowed to keep the poorest lands about the city and to work as tradesmen or mechanics, but they were given no part in the government. About 900 B. C., Lycurgus gave the country a code of laws under which it prospered.

About this time the Spartans entered on a period of conquest. They extended their sway over all the territory of Laconia, a part of the inhabitants of which they reduced to the condition of slaves. They also waged war with the Mycenaeans, the Arcadians and the Argives, against whom they were so successful that before the close of the sixth century B. C. they were recognized as the leading people in Greece. Early in the following century the Persian wars began, during which a rivalry grew up between Athens and Sparta. This rivalry led to the Peloponnesian War, in which Athens was humiliated, and the old ascendancy of Sparta was reestablished. Soon after this the Spartans became involved in a war with Persia by joining Cyrus the Younger in his rebellion against his brother Artaxerxes, and Athens, Thebes, Corinth and some of the Peloponnesian states seized the opportunity to declare war against Sparta. The final outcome of this struggle was the defeat of Sparta at Leuctra in 371 B. C.

During the following century Sparta steadily declined. Although determined attempts were made to restore its former greatness, these failed because there were less than a thousand inhabitants of true Spartan descent, and the majority of these were in a state of beggary. When Philip of Macedonia entered Greece, Sparta struggled vigorously against him, but Macedonia was victorious in the end. With the rest of Greece, Sparta passed under the dominion of the Romans in 146 B. C. The old constitution of Lycurgus was reestablished under Roman rule, and the city pros-

pered until the fifth century, when it was sacked by the Goths.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Athens	Helots	Peloponnesus
Dorians	Lycurgus	Philip II
Greece	Menelaus	Thermopylae

SPAR'TACANS, the name applied to a group of German radicals, who under the leadership of Dr. Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg opposed the Social Democrats on the reorganization of the German government after the abdication of the Kaiser, Wilhelm II, in November, 1918. The Spartacans were extreme Socialists, and had for their purpose the development of a dictatorship of the common people. Dr. Liebknecht had issued a number of pamphlets opposing the war, under the pen name of *Spartacus*, and from this incident the party took its name.

The Spartacans adopted the methods of the Bolsheviks in Russia and attempted to inaugurate a reign of terror by starting a counter-revolution. They were, however, soon suppressed. Rosa Luxemburg was killed by a mob and Liebknecht was shot while attempting to escape from a guard that held him under arrest. While the loss of the leaders, together with the active measures taken by the government to suppress the Spartacans, stopped the counter-revolution, the party continued its propaganda. See **GERMANY; LIEBKNECHT, KARL**.

SPAR'TACUS, a Thracian gladiator, the instigator and leader of a revolt of the slaves in Italy, between 73 and 71 B. C. He had been compelled, like other barbarians, to serve in the Roman army, but he had deserted and become the head of a band of robbers. At length he was taken prisoner and placed in a gladiatorial school at Capua, with two hundred other slaves. They formed a conspiracy, effected their escape and were joined by the disaffected slaves and peasantry of the neighborhood, so that in a few months Spartacus found himself at the head of over sixty thousand men. Two consuls were sent with armies against him, but Spartacus defeated them in succession and led his forces toward Rome. In this crisis Crassus was placed at the head of the army and managed to hem in the revolted slaves near Rhegium. Spartacus broke through the enemy by night and retreated, but later he had to encounter the army of Crassus. His soldiers were overcome, and Spartacus himself fell fighting.

SPARTANBURG, S. C., the county seat of Spartanburg County, ninety-three miles northwest of Columbia, on the Charleston & Western Carolina, the Southern, the Piedmont & Northern, and the Clinchfield railroads, and there is a good airport. The city is on an elevation of over 800 feet. It is in a rich cotton-growing region, containing, also, deposits of limestone, granite, gold and iron. There are many cotton mills with more than 800,000 spindles, ironworks, lumber mills, broom factories and fertilizer manufacture. Converse College and Wofford College are located here, also a Technical Industrial Institute. The city has the mayor and council form of government, having abandoned the commission form. Population, 1920, 22,638; in 1930, 28,783.

SPASM, *spas'm*, an ailment of which the chief feature is jerking of the muscles. Spasm is a symptom of disease, not a specific disease. It occurs in epilepsy, in the final stages of Bright's disease, frequently in poisoning cases, and occasionally in attacks of indigestion. Children suffering from intestinal trouble sometimes have convulsions more terrifying than dangerous. The remedy for attacks of spasm depends upon the cause, and must be determined by a physician.

SPAVIN, a disease of horses, which affects the hock joint, the joint in the hind leg between the knee and the fetlock. Spavin may occur in two forms. The first, which is called *bog*, or *blood spavin*, arises from an injury and is accompanied by swelling and inflammation. In the other form, known as *bone spavin*, there is an injury which causes a bony substance to be deposited about the joint, in some cases causing permanent stiffness. A bone spavin grows very slowly, and it may not be noticed until the horse becomes lame. No cure has been found for it. The treatment for bog spavin consists in hot applications and blistering. When these fail, burning with a hot iron may be resorted to, but this should be done by a skilful veterinarian.

SPAWN, the eggs of fishes, frogs and reptiles. The number of eggs produced by fishes varies greatly in different species; for instance, in the spawn of a single codfish, as many as 3,500,000 eggs have been found. Fish eggs are an important article of food for sea animals, and hence millions are necessary to save a species from extinction.

As a measure of safety sea fish often ascend rivers in the spawning season; and some fresh-water fishes spawn in the ocean.

SPEAKER, *speek'er*, the title given to the presiding officer of a legislative body. It applies to that official in the English House of Commons, in the House of Representatives in the United States and in the Dominion Senate and House of Commons in Canada.

Until 1910 the Speaker of the United States House of Representatives was assumed to be the second most powerful man in the government of the nation, next to the President. This was due to his power to appoint committees of the House; it was possible by the use of this authority practically to control legislation. In the year named, however, the Speaker was deprived of this arbitrary power.

The Speaker of the House is chosen from among the membership of that body, for a term of two years, and he has a vote on all questions. By calling another member to his post he may descend to the floor and address the House on any subject. He receives an annual salary of \$15,000, equal to that of the Vice-President, who is presiding officer of the Senate.

In the state legislature the Speaker has powers and duties very similar to those of the Speaker of the United States House of Representatives.

In the English House of Commons this official is strictly non-partisan, and the office may be held permanently by the same person through several opposing administrations. He cannot take part in debate, neither can he vote on any question except in case of a tie. See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES; REPRESENTATIVES, HOUSE OF.

SPEARMINT, *speer'mint*, a species of mint native to temperate regions of most parts of the world. Seventy per cent of the peppermint of the United States is produced in Saint Joseph County, Mich., the world's most important center of spearmint distillation. In this vicinity almost every evening the wind wuffs breezes heavily laden with mint odors.

Spearmint yields an oil utilized in the preparation of perfumes and medicine and as flavoring in chewing gum, julep, candies, soups, sauces, etc. The smooth, erect stems of the plant grow to two feet in height and bear at the top whorls of pale purple or white flowers. See MINT.

SPECIE, *spe'she*, PAYMENTS, RESUMPTION OR, in American history, specifically, the steps taken by the United States between 1875 and 1879 for gradual redemption of United States notes, of which there were at that time \$382,000,000 out-standing, as a result of the issues of paper money during the Civil War. It had been found necessary in 1861 to suspend the redemption of these notes in metallic money, by reason of the extraordinary demand for gold caused by the war.

As the volume of paper money increased, its value naturally decreased, causing not only a rise of prices, but a general uncertainty in financial and commercial circles. In order to improve the situation, an act was passed in 1866 providing for the gradual retirement of greenbacks and the payment of them in specie, but this was not satisfactory. Another act was passed in 1875, providing for complete re-umption of all notes presented on January 1, 1879, and for the gradual accumulation of gold in the treasury by means of the sale of bonds, for the purpose of redeeming these notes. As the supply of gold increased, the value of greenbacks or government notes proportionately rose, and when the government offered to redeem its notes in gold, few were presented.

SPECIES, *spe'shez*, a distinct kind of animals or plants. Any group of individuals having common characteristics and designated by a common name, although they may differ among themselves in minor details of form or color, is called a species. Such individuals reproduce their kind by indefinite interbreeding. A group of species with points in common is called a genus. See **CLASSIFICATION**.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY. See **GRAVITY, SPECIFIC**.

SPECTACLES, an optical device designed to aid the eyesight, the invention of Roger Bacon, an English scientist of the thirteenth century. The first spectacles were very crude, and it was not until the eighteenth century that they began to be made according to the principles of refraction of light. Spectacles consist of a pair of lenses made of clear rock crystal, ground according to a formula to meet the needs of the person for whom they are intended. Long-sighted persons require convex lenses; those who are short-sighted need lenses which are concave. When the eyes have difficulty in distinguishing objects both near and far, divided (bi-focal)

spectacles are worn. In these each lens consists of two semi-circles of glass, differently ground, fitted neatly together one above the other in the frame, or of a single piece of glass with the upper and the lower half ground to focus differently. The latter is very much more expensive. In cases of astigmatism, a structural defect of the eye, the lens used is the segment of a cylinder.

Spectacles can be made with such skill and in such variety that almost any defect in vision arising from irregularity in the shape of the eye can be corrected by them. One should never select spectacles without consulting a skilled oculist, since the eyes are seldom alike, and a lens that is suited to one eye is not suited to the other. Unless spectacles are adjusted to the eyes, they are liable to be injurious rather than beneficial.

The frame of spectacles is made of tortoise shell or of metal, usually gold or steel. It consists usually of a rim enclosing the glass, joined by a bridge which rests upon the nose, and side bars and bows, which fit over the ears. Glasses which are held by clips to the nose are as popular as those held by bows.

SPECTROSCOPE, *spek'tro skope*, an instrument for studying the spectra of bodies (see **LIGHT**, subhead *Spectrum*). The ordinary spectroscope has a central prism enclosed in a frame, shaped like an alarm-clock case and laid face upward on a standard. From the sides of this frame extend, horizontally, three large tubes, equidistant from one another. One of these tubes, called the *collimator*, has, at the end near the prism, a double-convex lens, and at the other end, at the focus of the lens, a small slit, formed by two pieces of adjustable metal which regulate the width of the slit and the amount of light admitted. The light entering the slit strikes the prism in parallel rays. One of the tubes contains a graduated scale, by means of which the spectrum is thrown on a screen, and the other is a telescope, by means of which the phenomena are observed.

The spectroscope is used for the purpose of determining the composition of the heavenly bodies, such as the sun and stars, and the composition of substances when adulteration is suspected. It is much used in astronomy. By means of it astronomers may determine distances in space and the directions and velocities of remote bodies. It has made possible some of the greatest of as-

tronomical discoveries. See SPECTRUM ANALYSIS.

SPECTRUM. See LIGHT.

SPECTRUM, spek'trum, ANALYSIS. By passing a beam of sunlight through a glass prism in a dark room an image containing all the colors of the rainbow is obtained. This image is called the *solar spectrum*, and is formed because the prism separates the beam of white light into the colors which unite to form it. Experiments with other substances show that they also produce spectra when burned in the spectroscope (which see), and *spectrum analysis* is the process by which the composition of substances is ascertained by the spectroscope. Burning bodies produce three kinds of spectra, known as the continuous spectrum, the bright-lined spectrum and the dark-lined, or absorption spectrum. For instance a *continuous* spectrum is formed by a glowing or burning body near the instrument or by the sun when its rays are analyzed by a single prism. If a candle or gas light is burned near a prism, it forms a continuous spectrum. A *bright-lined* spectrum is formed when gases which are not under great pressure are burned. The lines thus formed have a definite position in the spectrum and never change in the same substance. The *dark-lined* spectrum is formed by the absorption of light as it passes through the vapor of some substance between the burning body and the spectroscope. Experiment has shown that the vapor of any substance absorbs the rays of light which that substance produces in the spectrum when it is burned. These dark lines are known as *Fraunhofer* lines, from the name of their discoverer, and a number of them appear in the spectrum of the sun. Since these occupy a definite position on the screen, they are designated by the letters of the alphabet as *a, b, c*.

The process of spectrum analysis is as follows: The dark lines in the solar spectrum are produced by its light passing through the vapor of certain substances. Since, in the spectrum of iron, bright lines cover certain dark lines in the solar spectrum, therefore we infer that the atmosphere of the sun contains the vapor of iron. The presence of other substances in the sun has been discovered in a similar manner. In testing the composition of any substance by means of the spectroscope, a small quantity of the substance is burned and its spectrum is noted. In case the substance contains impurities, the

lines which these impurities form will also appear on the screen, and their presence is thus noted. The great value of the spectroscope for ascertaining the purity of substances is in its ability to detect minute quantities. It is estimated that as small a quantity as $\frac{1}{100,000,000}$ of a grain of lithium can thus be detected.

SPEECH, in the broadest sense, is the art of using language to convey thought. In a more restricted sense speech may be designated as the act of expressing ideas by means of vocal sound. According to the latter definition, "Polly wants a cracker," which is merely a repetition of a succession of orderly sounds without understanding of their meaning, could not be called speech; neither could the utterances of delirious persons and maniacs, and yet these latter are more than *voice*, which is merely the act of producing any sound by means of the vocal organs. Speech is to be distinguished from *language*, which is merely a system or code used in common by a group of individuals for intercommunication.

SPEEDOMETER, a device for recording the speed at which a vehicle is moving and also the distance traveled. It was once called a *cyclometer*. The speedometer is in general use on automobiles, and is frequently attached to bicycles. The speedometer for automobiles consists of a system of clockwork connected with the fore wheel of the automobile, so adjusted that one dial records the distance traveled, and the other indicates the speed in miles per hour. The device used on bicycles records the distance traveled. It is of simpler construction and is set in motion by a cam on the spoke of the fore wheel.

SPELLING, spel'ing. Quite as important as correct articulation of the sounds that form a word and the proper placing of the accent, is accurate spelling of the word. The ability to spell correctly is cultivated largely by means of careful observation in one's reading and by persistent efforts to be exact in spelling words both orally and in writing. Especially is this true of those who use English, since our language is usually lacking in uniformity in the matter of spelling. However, there are several rules for spelling that are so generally appreciable as to be of much value to those who do not readily retain in memory the exact form of words. Among these rules the following are most important.

Rules of Spelling. Words ending in *e* usually drop the *e* and change *i* to *y* in adding the suffix *ing*; as, lie, lying.

Words ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* to *i* when a suffix beginning with a consonant is added; as, bounty, bountiful.

Words ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* in adding a suffix; as, joy, joyous. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, hit, hitting; begin, beginning.

Words ending in silent *c* drop this final *c* when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added; as, residue, residuum.

Words ending in *c* usually retain this final letter when adding a suffix beginning with a consonant; as, resolute, resoluteless.

When a syllable is added to a word ending in a double consonant, this consonant is usually retained; as, still, stillness.

Nouns regularly form their plurals by adding *s*; as, table, tables.

However, when the singular noun ends with a sound that does not unite with *s*, *es* is added; as, church, churches.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel form their plurals by adding *ies*; as, monkey, monkeys.

When final *v* is preceded by a consonant, *y* is changed to *i* and *es* is added in forming the plural; as, city, cities.

Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change the *f* or *fe* to *v* and add *es* to form the plural, as, shelf, shelves.

Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, sometimes form the plural by adding *s* but more frequently by adding *es*; as, solo, solos; motto, mottoes; potato, potatoes.

Root Words and Derivatives. Interesting recitations in the formation of derivatives from root words may prove of much assistance in teaching children to analyze the building up of words when they find difficulty in spelling them. A root word may be chosen and as many derivatives as possible formed from it by adding prefixes and suffixes. The same lesson may prove doubly profitable by defining the root word and showing the changes in significance after the addition of the prefixes or suffixes. The following is offered as a suggestive exercise.

Tract—Draw

Tract-or or=that which.
Tract-ion ion=act of.
Tract-ile ile=may be.
Tract-able able=able to be.

Abs-tract abs=away from
At-tract at=near to
Con-tract con=together
De-tract de=away from
Ex-tract ex=out of.
Pro-tract .. pro=out
Re-tract re=back.
Sub-tract sub=from under
Attract-ive iv=ending to
In-tract-able in=not able=able to be

Explanation. A tractor is an instrument which draws.

Traction is the state of being drawn or the act of drawing, as the traction of a muscle.

Gold is a tractile metal, as it may be drawn out in thin strips.

A tractable person is one easily drawn to a proper course of conduct.

An abstract manner results when the mind is drawn away from surrounding objects.

To attract people we must have power to draw them to us.

To detract from value is to lessen or draw away from it.

An extract from a book is a part which is drawn out of it.

A protracted meeting is one which is drawn out or extended beyond the usual time.

When a statement is retracted it is withdrawn—"taken back."

When a number is drawn from under or taken away from another we subtract it.

That which tends to draw one to it is attractive.

An intractable student is one who is not easily drawn to discipline.

Spelling Reform. It is generally agreed that English spelling is complicated and illogical. Considerable progress has been made in the direction of simplification, though the radical changes proposed by some advocates of spelling reform have not been adopted generally. The radicals, for example, would write *dout* for *doubt*, *hed* for *head*, *nat* for *gnat*, and *fantom* for *phantom*. In the United States many educators have adopted the recommendations of the National Education Association, which uses the following forms:

altho	demagog	program	thorofare
catalog	pedagog	tho	thru
decalog	prolog	thoro	throuth

The general tendency is toward dropping superfluous letters, but it will require a long time to eliminate such letters completely.

SPOENCE, HERBERT (1820-1903), distinguished English philosopher. Because of delicate health during childhood and youth, he was educated at home and lived most of the time out of doors. In this way he ac-

quired a dislike for schools, and so completed his education under tutors. During this time he was much interested in making collections of insects and in rearing moths and butterflies and in studying the botany of the locality.



HERBERT SPENCER

At the age of seventeen, Spencer became an engineer on the London & Birmingham Railway and remained at that occupation ten years. After this he was for four years sub-editor of the *Economist*; and it was in the course of this latter period that he made the acquaintance of George Eliot, John Stuart Mill and other celebrated scholars and thinkers and published his *Social Statics*. Spencer conceived the idea of publishing a philosophy whose scope should include all existing knowledge, and upon this he faithfully labored throughout his life and was finally able to see it completed and published.

Spencer was remarkably well fitted by nature for the task which he had set himself. He was a patient observer and had acquired a vast store of facts in all sciences and possessed the power of seeing relations between facts to a remarkable degree—to a much greater degree than Darwin or other specialists. Whatever opposition may in the future be given his "principles," intelligent men will always look with the greatest respect upon his effort to systematize knowledge and will give to him the credit accorded to no other man who has engaged in a similar labor.

Like Darwin, Spencer was a thorough believer in evolution and did much through his lectures and writings to establish and extend the theory (see *EVOLUTION*). He believed in the unity of all things, and he set forth this belief in so convincing a manner that his popularity grew in spite of the violent opposition which some of his statements caused. His works have been particularly well received in the United States. Among those best known are *First Principles*, *Principles of Biology*, *Principles of Psychology*, *Principles of Sociology*, *Principles of Ethics* and *Education*. Besides these, he wrote

numerous books on various subjects and three volumes of *Essays, Scientific, Political and Speculative*.

SPENCER GULF, an inlet of the Southern Pacific Ocean, on the southern coast of Australia, extending inward two hundred miles. Its greatest breadth is about ninety miles. At the upper end it narrows to a width of three miles, and at its head is Fort Augusta. At the lower end it again narrows between Eyre Peninsula, on the west, and York Peninsula, on the east.

SPENSER, EDMUND (1552-1599), one of the foremost English poets of the Elizabethan Age, was born at East Smithfield, London.

In 1576 he received from the University of Cambridge the degree of M. A., and shortly afterwards became a member of the household of the Earl of Leicester. He was introduced at court by Sir Philip Sidney, to whom he dedicated his *Shepherd's Calendar*,



EDMUND SPENSER

published in 1579. In 1580 he went to Ireland, as secretary to Lord Grey, deputy of the island, and had a part in restoring peace after Desmond's rebellion. A large part of Desmond's forfeited estate was given him by the government, and on it he lived after 1586.

Here he worked on the *Faerie Queene*, the first three books of which were published in 1590, with a dedication to Queen Elizabeth. He then passed two or three years in Ireland, where, in 1594, he married. His courtship is celebrated in eighty-eight sonnets, and his marriage in *Epithalamium*, the finest wedding song in the English language. After another visit to London, in the course of which he published three more books of the *Faerie Queene* and his *Four Hymnes*, Spenser returned to Ireland, and in September, 1598, he was appointed sheriff of the County of Cork. The rebellion of Tyrone, however, took place in October; Spenser's house was fired by the populace, and, according to some accounts, his child perished in the flames. The poet arrived in England with body and spirit broken by these misfortunes, and he died in the following January. He was interred in Westminster Abbey, near Chaucer. As a poet, although his minor works contain many beau-

ties, Spenser will be judged chiefly by the poetical allegory, the *Faerie Queene*. It was the poet's intention that this work should embrace twelve books, each setting forth a cardinal virtue embodied in a knight. Only six were written, besides two cantos of *Mutabilitie*. It is supposed that part of the unfinished poem may have perished when the poet's house was sacked and burned. Because of his great influence on his successors Spenser has been called "the poet's poet."

SPERMACETI, *spur ma sete*, a substance resembling wax, found in the cavities of the head and in the blubber of the sperm whale. It is used in making candles, ointments and face creams. In the living animal this material occurs in combination with a thick oil; on exposure to air the spermaceti separates from the oil in white flakes. When purified, this substance becomes a semi-transparent solid, in appearance resembling tallow. Some of the larger whales have yielded twenty-four barrels of spermaceti. See **SPERM WHALE**.

SPERMATOPHYTES, *spurm'a toh fites*. See **PHANTEROGAMOUS PLANTS**.

SPERM OIL, the oil of the sperm whale, which is separated from the spermaceti and the blubber. This kind of oil is much purer than train oil and burns away without leaving any charcoal on the wicks of lamps. In composition it differs but slightly from common whale oil.

SPERM WHALE, or **CACHALOT**, *kash' a lot*, a species of whale belonging to the section of the whale order denominated *toothed whales*. The sperm whale is generally met with in the Pacific, but occasionally it is also found on the coast of Greenland. The large blunt head in an old male is sometimes thirty feet long, about a third of the total length of the body. *Blow holes*, or S-shaped nostrils, are situated in the front part of the head. The weight of an adult animal is estimated to be about 200 tons. This whale is valuable for its oil and for a substance from the head, known as *spermaceti*. See **SPERMACEITI**; **WHALE**.

SPHERE, *sfeer*, a geometric solid bounded by a surface every part of which is equally distant from a point called the center. It may be conceived to be generated by the revolution of a semicircle about its diameter, which remains fixed and which is called the *axis* of the sphere. A section of a sphere made by a plane passing through its center is called a *great circle* of the sphere; and

when the cutting plane does not pass through the center the section is called a *small circle* of the sphere. The surface of a sphere is equal four times the area of its great circle.

SPHEROID, a body or figure resembling a sphere, but not perfectly spherical. In geometry it is a solid generated by the revolution of an ellipse about one of its axes. When the generating ellipse revolves about its longer or major axis, the spheroid is *oblong*, or *prolate*; that is, it has protruding poles; when it revolves about its minor axis, the spheroid is *oblate*, that is, has flattened poles. The earth is an oblate spheroid with polar diameter shorter than the equatorial.

SPHINX, *sfinx*, a fabulous monster which figures in Greek and in Egyptian mythology. The Greek sphinx had a lion's body and paws, the head of a woman, the tail of a serpent and wings of a bird. The monster was said to live on a cliff overlooking the road to Thebes. To every one who passed she put a riddle, and devoured all who could not answer. Oedipus, when asked the riddle, "What animal is it that walks on four legs in the morning, two at noon and three in the evening," replied: "Man, for he walks on his hands and feet when young, erect on two feet in middle life and with the help of a stick in old age." Infuriated that her riddle was correctly answered, the sphinx hurled herself from the cliff and was killed.

The Egyptian sphinx had a lion's body, feet, legs and tail and the head of a man. It was always represented in a recumbent posture, with forepaws stretched forward. The sphinxes often stood in pairs guarding the entrances to temples. The largest sphinx, that near the group of pyramids at Gizeh, is about 150 feet long and sixty-three feet high; the body is hewn out of stone, but the paws, which are thrown out fifty feet in front, are constructed of masonry. The face, fourteen feet wide, has been badly mutilated, but notwithstanding this the figure is one of the most impressive monuments of Egypt. See **PYRAMID**.

SPHINX MOTH, a species of hawk moth, deriving its popular name from a supposed resemblance which its caterpillars present to the Egyptian sphinx, when they raise the fore part of their bodies. See **HAWK MOTH**.

SPHYGMOGRAPH, *sfig'mo graf*, an instrument for recording the force and fre-

quency of the pulse. A strip of paper moved by clockwork passes under a pencil which moves from side to side describing an irregular wavy line on the sheet. The exact effect of certain external stimuli and of medicines is indicated by this delicate little instrument.

SPICE, the name given to a group of vegetable seasonings, including pepper, mace, nutmeg, cloves, ginger, allspice, cinnamon, capsicum and mustard. Some are produced from seeds, as mustard; some from bark, as cinnamon; some from root, as ginger; and some from fruit, as nutmeg. Spices contain a very small percentage of nourishment; they are valuable for food only because of their stimulating effect on the digestive organs. Employed in moderation they are wholesome, but are injurious if used in excess.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Allspice	Cassia	Mustard
Anise	Cinnamon	Nutmeg
Caper	Cloves	Paprika
Caraway	Ginger	Pepper

SPICE ISLANDS. See **MOLUCCAS**.

SPIDERS, the common name of animals often classed with the insects, but really constituting a class by themselves, the Arachnida.

Characteristics. The spider's head and chest are united to form one segment; no

filaments are drawn. With these filmy threads the spider makes its web, which is intended to entangle prey or to serve as a house for the industrious little animal. Spiders have four pairs of legs and no antennae. Most of them have eight eyes, borne on the front of the head. Their mandibles are terminated by a little hook, near which is a gland secreting a poisonous fluid by which the spider kills its prey. The female spider is much the larger, and the males rarely approach for fear of being devoured. The eggs are numerous and are usually hidden in cocoons, which are carried by some mothers until the eggs hatch. Often the countless young live upon the mother's back in such masses that they make her appear very much larger than she is.

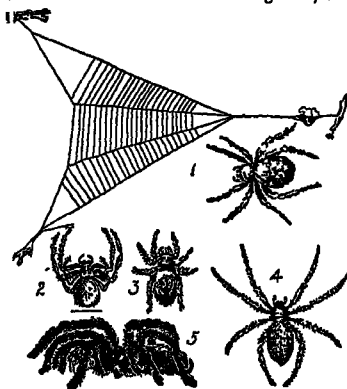
Habits. Spiders are exceedingly interesting animals, and many species have developed remarkably intelligent ways of living. The tropical species are very large and powerful, some being able to capture small birds. The common garden spiders spin perfect geometric webs. When a fly is entangled in one of these, the spider darts out, throws another web about the intruder, kills it, sucks its blood, throws away the body and repairs the web in a very short time. Some species run with great speed; others leap many times their own length, to seize their prey. They are quarrelsome and often fight to the death. If their limbs are torn off; others may grow again. The water spiders inhabit fresh-water pools, where they live in skilfully constructed nests, looking like small diving bells, suspended mouth downward into the water.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Antennae	Tarantula
Arachnida	Trapdoor Spider
Spider Web	

SPIDER WEB. To spin its web, the spider raises its spinnerets in the air, and the gentle pressing of them against an object causes the exudation of what may be described as liquid silk. Upon contact with the air, the threads harden and unite into one strand. This thread becomes a sort of suspension bridge which the spider tightens with its claws and cements firmly to a beam, leaf or wall. On several of these strands a gossamer net is spun.

The web of the common house spider consists of numerous criss-cross strands interwoven around the supporting spokes and forming an irregular wall around a central



SPIDERS

- 1 Triangle spider and web
- 2 Crab spider
- 3 Jumping spider
- 4 Large orb-weaving spider
- 5 Tarantula

wings are developed, and the abdomen is furnished with from four to six cylindrical or conical glands or spinnerets, from the minute openings in which extremely fine, silky

space. The spider repairs with great alacrity any broken portion of its web. However, after it has spun several webs, it exhausts for a time its supply of silky fluid and often adopts predatory methods in taking possession of some other spider.

The orb web of the large black and yellow garden spider is the most delicate and skilfully constructed. It is geometric and consists of fine spiral strands fastened to spokes, similar to those of a wheel, and affixed to a branch or leaf with threads. That insects hitting against it may be trapped, the net is hung vertically. As the spider is enabled to run on the radiating strands of its web, it is never entangled; and the insect is held captive by minute, pearl-like drops of the glutinous substance.

Young spiders spin the single shining threads often seen suspended between grass stalks. Threads of silk cast off into the air by these spiders often float away with the breeze, and, spinning more threads as they go, they are blown to new areas. Thus the *flying*, or *ballooning spiders*, sail through the air and distribute themselves over the globe. The spider does most of its spinning at night or in the early hours of the morning.

SPIKENARD, or **NARD**, a perfume obtained from a plant of the valerian order, native to the East Indies. The plant has a fibrous root stock or spike, from which grow several thick stems about two inches long. These highly aromatic stems are the source of the perfume. This is the true spikenard of the ancients, used by the Romans in their baths and by Eastern peoples. It is still highly prized in the Orient, where it has been used for centuries to perfume ointments. The spikenard mentioned in the Bible was probably an unguent perfumed with this odor. It was worth approximately fifty dollars a pound.

In the southern part of Canada and the northern sections of the United States there is a similar plant with large aromatic roots which are used in making a tonic. This plant is called *American spikenard*, or *Indian root*.



SPIKENARD

SPINACH, *spin'ayj*, or *spin'ach* (the first preferred) is a garden vegetable, cultivated for its leaves, which are used for greens and in making soup. There are two varieties, the prickly spinach and the smooth spinach. The latter is the variety more generally used. It has round, blunt leaves and a smooth fruit. For early spring use, the seed is sown in the fall, usually in drills about a foot apart. In the spring the plants grow rapidly and are ready for market in a few weeks. Spinach needs a fertile soil, for if it grows slowly the leaves are tough and bitter. The food value is known to be slight, but it has a slightly tonic effect, and some people consider it an excellent article of food. The plant is supposed to be a native of Asia, and it was first cultivated in Arabia.

SPINAL CORD, the nervous cord which extends from the brain along the back side of the spinal column, and from which all the important nerves and systems of nerves branch. At the center of the cord is a tiny canal, which is connected directly with the cavities of the brain. Next to it is the gray matter, and around this is the so-called white matter, which is composed only of nerve fibers. See **BRAIN**; **NERVOUS SYSTEM**.

SPINNING, the making of thread or yarn by twisting the fiber of wool, flax, cotton, silk or other material, has developed into a great modern industry from a humble household occupation.

The Evolution of the Spinning Wheel. In earliest times spinning was accomplished by the use of the distaff and the hand spindle. The fiber, when spun, was wound upon the distaff, and the spindle, consisting of a round stick tapering at each end, with a notch for fixing yarn or thread at the upper end, was held in the hand and rotated by a movement against the right leg, while the left hand of the spinner gathered and supplied the fiber. The first improvement upon this device was the fixing of the spindle horizontally in a frame, causing it to rotate rapidly by means of a band that passed around a large wheel. This was the beginning of the spinning wheel, which is supposed to have been invented sometime in the sixteenth century (see **SPINNING WHEEL**). The treadle was added later, thus giving the spinner both hands with which to manipulate the thread.

The first spinning wheels contained only one spindle, but those with two spindles were

afterwards invented. The next great invention in spinning consisted of the spinning jenny, invented by Hargreaves (see SPINNING JENNY). This made possible the spinning of a large number of threads at once. Later Hargreaves's invention was improved upon by the invention of the water frame, which made an evenner and finer yarn. The mule-jenny, which is the basis of all spinning machines now in use, consists of a combination of the spinning jenny and the water frame. By means of these inventions the art of spinning was very materially advanced, and one operator could produce as much yarn in a day as fifty or more working by the old method.

Modern Methods. The size of the yarn and the forms of the twist are determined by the speed with which the machine operates and the rapidity with which the thread is drawn out, rapid motions producing a fine, hard-twisted yarn, while slow motions produce a coarse and more loosely twisted product. While it is possible to regulate spinning machines, so as to have them yield yarn of different grades, in large manufactories it is found more economical to construct each machine for the manufacture of a particular grade and to devote it entirely to that purpose. This makes feasible the construction of simpler machines, and the work can be accomplished more rapidly. See CLOTH; WRAYING

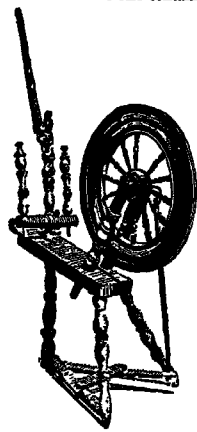
SPINNING JENNY, the name given to the first spinning machine by means of which a number of threads could be spun at once. It was invented about 1767 by James Hargreaves, a Lancashire weaver, and consisted of a number of spindles turned by a common wheel or cylinder worked by hand. Later it was replaced by the mule-jenny. See SPINNING.

SPINNING WHEEL A machine for spinning wool, cotton or flax into threads by hand. It consists of a wheel, a band and spindle. The wheel for spinning flax has a distaff attached and is driven by the foot; but the wheel for spinning wool is driven by hand. The spinner turns the wheel with the right hand, and holds the wool, which is in the form of rolls about three feet long and a half-inch in diameter, in the left hand. The degree of fineness of the yarn is determined by the rapidity with which the thread is drawn out by a backward movement of the spinner.

SPINOZA, *spe no' zah*, BARUCH BENEDICT (1632-1677), a Dutch-Jewish philosopher, born at Amsterdam, whither his parents had fled from Catholic persecution in Portugal. He was carefully trained in Jewish theology, but after reading Descartes and Bruno he turned from the Jewish faith. Expelled from the Israelitish community, he fled from Amsterdam to the suburbs to escape the enmity of the fanatical Jews, and after five years' seclusion he removed to Rhynsburg. Finally he settled in The Hague, where he died. By his skill as a grinder of optical lenses, he managed to earn a living. He refused a pension from the French king and a professorship in Heidelberg, because their acceptance might interfere with his freedom of thought and conduct, but he accepted a legacy from his friend De Vries. Thus annuity enabled him to devote a large part of his time to the study of philosophy.

In 1670 he published anonymously *Tractatus theologico-politicus*, a practical political treatise, designed to demonstrate the necessity, in a free commonwealth, of freedom of thought and speech. This work called forth such a storm of adverse criticism that Spinoza published nothing further. After his death all his unpublished writings were published. *Ethics Demonstrated in the Geometrical Order*, which he had completed in 1674, is his most famous work and the one containing his metaphysical system. The essence of this system is that God is identical with the universe.

SPIRAEA, *spi re'ah*, a class of herbs and shrubs of the rose family, found in the north temperate zone. There are about sixty species, adapted to a wide range of soil and conditions. Well-known varieties are *drop-wort*, *meadow-sweet*, *hardhack*, *saxifrage* and *shadbush*. The flowers grow in clusters of various forms and may be white or pink.



SPINNING WHEEL IN THE HOME OF GOVERNOR CARVER

Several species are among the showiest of American shrubs. The steplebush, with its spirelike clusters of tiny white flowers; the Douglas spirea, with whitened leaves; the bridal wreath, with its dainty, graceful, downward curving stems covered with little leaves and bearing profusely drooping clusters of tiny feathery white flowers—these are favorites. They are much used in landscape gardening, especially in city parks.

SPIRE, the tapering part of a steeple, which rises above the tower. It had its beginnings in the pyramidal or conical roofs on eleventh-century buildings in the Romanesque style, specimens of which still exist. These roofs, becoming gradually elongated and more and more acute, resulted at length in the elegant, tapering spire. The spires of medieval architecture, to which alone the term is appropriate, are generally square, octagonal or circular in plan; they are sometimes solid, more frequently hollow, and are variously ornamented with bands, with panels, more or less enriched, and with spire lights.

SPIRITUALISM, the belief that communication can be held with disembodied spirits. It is of ancient origin, but in its limited and modern form, it dates from the year 1848. In that year a Mr. and Mrs. Fox, who lived with their two daughters at Hydesville, N. Y., were disturbed by repeated and inexplicable rappings throughout the house. At length, according to the history of this belief, one of the daughters reported that the raps were intelligible: that the unseen "rapper" was the spirit of a murdered peddler. When this phenomenon was made known, a belief that intercourse could be obtained with the spirit world gained support, and numerous "spirit circles" were formed in various parts of America. The manifestations thus said to be obtained from the spirits were rappings, table turnings, musical sounds, writings and the unseen raising of heavy bodies.

The peculiarity of these phenomena was that they were always more or less associated with a *medium*, that is, one who was supposed to have an organization sensitively fitted to communicate with the spirit world. Daniel D. Home possessed unusual powers and was said to be able to float up to the ceiling or out of the window into the next room. Such claims not only attracted the curious and converted the unthinking, but also received the attention of legal and scientific men.

Judge Edmonds and Professor Hare undertook to expose fraud in connection with the manifestations, but both had to admit the genuineness of a slight part of the evidence; while in England, such scientists as A. R. Wallace, Sir William Crookes and Sir Oliver Lodge professed belief in the genuineness of the phenomena. The believers in spiritualism are most numerous in England, where investigations are made by the Society for Psychical Research and the results annually published in a volume of Proceedings. In the United States, the Spiritualists number about 250,000. Spiritualism has been greatly discredited owing to the fact that many impostors purporting to have mediumistic powers have carried on "confidence games" at the expense of the public.

The best recent books on spiritualism are *Human Personality and Its Survival of Bodily Death*, by F. W. H. Myers; *The New Revelation*, by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle; *Spiritualism; Its History, Phenomena and Doctrine*, by J. Arthur Hill; *Raymond*, by Sir Oliver Lodge, and *Modern Spiritualism*, by R. O. Mason.

SPIROMETER, a contrivance for determining the capacity of the human lungs; that is, for measuring the amount of air which can be expelled after a deep breath is taken. The instrument most commonly employed consists of two cylinders, one inverted and of a size that will allow it to move freely up and down with the other. The lower cylinder is filled with water, and to the top of the upper a tube and an air cock are attached. When air from the lungs is blown into the tube, this cylinder rises. A graduated scale marks the number of inches which the cylinder rises, and the diameter being known, the number of cubic inches of air expelled from the lungs is easily determined.

SPITHEAD, *spit'head*, a roadstead off the southern coast of England, between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight. It is fourteen miles long and four miles wide, and is a favorite anchorage of the British navy, being well sheltered from winds and protected by fortifications. The "spit," from which it takes its name, is a sandbank three miles long jutting southward from the Hampshire shore.

SPITZ, or **POMERANIAN DOG**, a small dog about the size of a spaniel, with erect ears, a foxlike face, sharp, pointed muzzle and a bushy tail, usually carried over the back. Its coat is soft and silky and may be

black, gray, red-brown or pure white. In its native province of Pomerania in Prussia, the Spitz is trained to tend sheep. In America the white variety with black-tipped nose is valued as a pet.

SPITSBERGEN, *spits burg' en*, a group of islands in the Arctic Ocean, situated about 400 miles north of Norway, between Franz Josef Land and Greenland. The largest islands are West Spitsbergen, North East Land, Edge Island, Prince Charles Foreland, Barents Land, King Karl's Land, Bear Island, and Hope Island. The highest elevations reach an altitude of 5,000 feet. The islands are icebound during the greater part of the year and are remarkable for the extensive glaciers found upon them. The Gulf Stream tempers the climate somewhat. The total area is about 24,300 square miles. Coal is the principal product; six mining camps are occupied during the whole year. Nearly 300,000 tons of coal are exported annually. The discovery of coal led to a renewal and to a settlement of rival claims as to the sovereignty of the islands. Norway's claims were approved in a treaty signed in 1920.

SPLEEN, an organ in the upper abdomen between the stomach and the left kidney and the diaphragm. It is about five inches by three or four inches in size, oval, of a purplish red color; it is soft and easily crumbled. Its functions are not completely understood, but it is known to act as a reservoir for red blood cells and to aid in their destruction; it is an important source of white blood cells. The spleen may be removed with little impairment of health.

SPLICING, *spliss'ing*, the process of joining two ropes without the use of a knot. The three chief varieties of splice are the *short splice*, the *long splice* and the *eye splice*. In making the *short splice* (Fig. 2) the ends of two ropes are unlaied for a short distance and are then fitted closely together; by the help of a marlinspike, the ends of each are laced over and under the strands of the other. The *long splice* is made in the same manner, but the rope is unlaied

for a greater distance; hence the splice is stronger. The *eye splice* (Fig. 3) is made by bending over the end of the rope and laing the strands into the rope where it is unlaied. The eye may be oval or circular. The *becket hitch* (Fig. 1) is the easiest method of attaching a small line to a rope. The *single wall* (Fig. 4) is the simplest method of preventing the end of a rope from fraying.

SPOFFORD, **AINSWORTH RAND** (1825-1908), an American librarian, born in Gilmanton, N. H. He received a classical education and became associate editor of the *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*. In 1861 he was appointed first assistant librarian in the Library of Congress, in 1864 he became librarian in chief, and held the position until 1899. As a librarian Spofford became widely known for his comprehensive knowledge of books and their contents. He wrote largely for the periodical press and edited, with others, *Library of Choice Literature*, *Library of Wit and Humor*, *A Practical Manual of Parliamentary Rules and American Almanack and Treasury of Facts, Statistical, Financial and Political*. During his administration the national library increased from 70,000 to more than 600,000 volumes.

SPOKANE, *spo kan'*, **WASH.**, the county seat of Spokane County and the second largest city of the state, is situated on the Spokane River, 314 miles east of Seattle and 309 miles northwest of Butte, Montana. It is served by the Northern Pacific; Union Pacific; the Great Northern; the Chicago, Milwaukee, Saint Paul & Pacific, the Spokane International (a branch of the Canadian Pacific). Three major bus lines, several electric lines (owned by the Great Northern), and two air lines reach the city. Felt's Field is the airport.

Spokane covers a tract of more than 20 square miles and is beautifully situated on both sides of the river; the cascades present great beauty and provide 25,000 horse power of electric energy. Paving of the streets is excellent; street railways and bus lines cover the entire city. About 45 per cent of the people own the homes in which they live.

Buildings and Parks. The important buildings include the Federal building, the city hall, courthouse, an auditorium, a Masonic temple, club buildings and three hospitals. Among the 156 churches the Roman Catholic



and the Protestant Episcopal cathedrals are noteworthy. The city has 48 parks and 16 playgrounds with a combined area of 3,670 acres. Fort George Wright, a military post within the city limits, occupies a site of over 1,000 acres.

Education. Besides the public schools the city has Gonzaga University, Whitworth College, a junior college, 15 denominational and private schools and schools for nurses. The Carnegie library contains 200,000 volumes. The Eastern Washington Historical Society Museum is at Spokane.

Industries. Spokane is an important distributing center for eastern Washington, northern Idaho and northeastern Oregon. Within this territory are many important mines, extensive timber reserves including the largest stand of white pine in the world, as well as large areas of rich agricultural lands. The Spokane River affords abundant water power. Within a distance of 65 miles seven hydro-electric plants are in operation, providing light for homes and streets and power for industry, such as the Coeur d'Alene mines, the irrigation projects and the lumber mills. These generating plants supply electric service to more than 52,000 customers in 16 counties of Washington and Idaho. The leading manufactures are lumbering and lumber products, flour, and meat, other industries are agriculture, mining and manufacturing of bakery products, brick and lime.

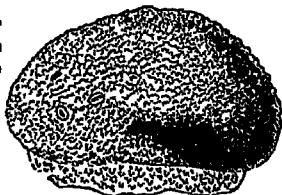
History. Lewis and Clark mentioned the Spokane district in their records. The British had established a trading post by 1811 at a new location which they named "Spokane House." John Jacob Astor's agents also set up a trading post in 1812 very near to Spokane House. For five years this region was in British hands and then was returned to the Americans.

The permanent settlement at Spokane dates from 1871. It grew slowly until the opening of the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1881, it was then incorporated as a city. In 1889 a fire nearly destroyed the business center, but it was soon rebuilt on a more permanent plan; there are no slums or tenements in the city. Only those who lived in the city "before the fire" can qualify as pioneers. The first library was organized in 1884 and the first newspaper was established in 1879, and in this same year the first church, Westminster Congregation, was organized. Indian wars raged in and about the city until 1879

with much loss of life. The population in 1930 was 115,514.

SPONGE, *spunj*, a jellylike sea animal, belonging to the order Coelenterata. There are numerous species (see COELENTERATA), but what is known as the sponge of commerce is the skeleton of the animal.

Construction. When examined, a common sponge is found to contain numerous tubes extending into it in all directions. The smaller tubes unite to form larger ones; and if the sponge is cut open, it is found that these all join together into one or more large tubes that radiate through the body from side to side.



SPONGE

In the living sponge these tubes are lined with the flesh of the animal. The cavities in the small tubes contain many digestive tracts, or stomachs, where the food is assimilated.

In the network of the fibers forming the sponge proper are found many spicules of silica and lime. In some these spicules of silica are so numerous as to give to the sponges a glasslike appearance, and when arranged in rows, like stars, they are very beautiful; such are the *glass-rose* sponge and *Venus's flower basket*. Sponges reproduce by means of eggs, formed by the layer of tissue which secretes the skeleton.

The Sponge of Commerce. The best sponges are obtained from the Mediterranean and Red seas, where they live in deep, clear water, from 150 to 200 feet below the surface. The methods of securing them vary in different localities. The old method of diving is to have two men go out in a boat, one of whom attaches a weight to his feet and descends to the bottom of the sea, where by rapid movements he gathers a few sponges and places them in a basket. He then gives a signal to the man in the boat, who hauls him up. By more recent methods, a diving dress is used, which enables the collector to remain under water a long time. Where the water is not too deep, the sponges are secured by spears or prongs, attached to long handles. The fisher uses a bucket with a glass bottom, which, when placed on the

surface of the water, enables him to see to a depth of sixty or more feet. When a sponge is discovered, he breaks it off with his prong and brings it to the boat. The sponges are either buried in warm sand or allowed to lie in the sun, until the flesh has thoroughly decomposed. They are then cleaned and beaten to expel all extraneous matter and are then dried and marketed.

Florida Sponge Industry. Nearly all of the sponges used in the United States come from Florida and the Bahama islands. The Florida fisheries have an annual output of about 623,000 pounds, giving that state practically a monopoly. The best grades of sponges, known as *sheep's wool*, are worth from two to five dollars a pound; the *yellow sponge*, from fifty to sixty cents, and the *coarse grass sponge*, from fifteen to twenty-five cents per pound. As many of the richest sponge beds are nearly exhausted, the United States government has passed laws to protect the Florida sponge fisheries against abusive fishing methods. Scientists are experimenting with artificial production because of the imminent shortage.

The World War greatly stimulated the Florida sponge industry on the Gulf coast, because of the difficulty of obtaining the Mediterranean output. Tarpon Springs became a great center of activity, and the work was carried on mainly by Greeks, who adopted the newer method of the diving apparatus. Many of the more intrepid divers plunged into water over one hundred feet deep and brought up choicest specimens.

SPONTANEOUS COMBUSTION. Jute, heaps of rags and similar substances, when saturated with oil, turpentine or varnish, and bituminous coal, when moistened with water, often begin to burn without having been ignited by some outside agency. Ignition of this sort is called *spontaneous combustion*. The cause of the fire is the mixing of the carbon and the hydrogen with the oxygen of the air so rapidly as to raise the temperature to the ignition point.

SPONTANEOUS GENERATION, *gen ur a shum*, or **ABIOTENESIS**, *ab e o jen'e sis*. At various times it has been thought that life could be created or produced from matter not itself alive. As recently as the seventeenth century it was thought that maggots on decaying meat were an example of spontaneous generation. With the rise of the science of bacteriology scientists have come to the con-

clusion that a living organism, no matter how minute, cannot come into existence without ancestry. See **MOLD**; **PROTOPLASM**.

SPOONBILL, a wading bird of the heron family. It takes its name from its spoon-shaped bill, which it dips about in the water, picking up marine insects and small shellfish.

Spoonbills are shy birds, living in flocks in wooded marshes, usually not far from the mouths of rivers, and on the sea-



SPOONBILL

A beautiful species is the *roseate spoonbill*, found in the warmer regions of the North American continent. The plumage of the bird's body is rosy pink; that of the wings, carmine. The glistening whiteness of the neck extends a short distance on the back. The birds build their nests, which are rough, flat structures of sticks, in low branches. They return year after year to the same breeding places, and owing to this habit they have been easily located and nearly exterminated by plume hunters. In the United States the name spoonbill is sometimes given to the shoveler duck.

SPORE, *spohr*, in botany, a minute cell body by means of which reproduction of seedless plants is carried on. A typical spore is a mass of protoplasm with a nucleus and cell wall. Plants that reproduce by spores are called cryptogams (see **BOTANY**, page 516), and are represented by the algae, ferns, mosses and lichens. There are two main classes of cryptogamous plants—those containing green coloring matter, or chlorophyll, essential in the production of plant food; and those that are parasites and derive their nourishment from the plants on which they grow. Among the parasites are corn smut and wheat rust. In the higher cryptogams reproduction proceeds in much the same way as it does among lower orders of seed-bearing plants. Among the lower cryptogams reproduction is frequently a matter of cell division.

SPOTTSYLVANIA COURT HOUSE, *spot sil va' ni a*, **BATTLE OF**, a battle of the

Civil War, fought in May, 1864, near Spottsylvania Court House, Va., about fifty miles from Richmond, between a Federal force under Meade and the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia under Lee. After the battle in the Wilderness, Grant had ordered a movement around Lee's right wing to Richmond. Lee, however, was prepared for this maneuver and was in formation at Spottsylvania before Grant reached that



SPOTTSVYLANDIA COURT HOUSE

point. The contest was opened by the Federal General Hancock, on May 7, and the fighting was continued intermittently until May 12. The Federal losses at Spottsylvania were nearly 7,000; the Confederates lost more, but held their position. It was in the course of this battle that General Grant sent his famous dispatch to General Halleck at Washington: "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." See CIVIL WAR IN AMERICA.

SPRAIN, *sprane*, an injury to a joint in the body by which the ligaments holding the bones in place are strained or torn. The ankle because of the great weight it sustains is the joint most frequently injured by a sprain. Sprains in some joints are much more difficult to heal than in others. Inflammation, swelling and pain follow a sprain and sometimes are exceedingly severe. The application of hot or cold water will often take out the soreness, and complete rest will bring a cure, unless the ligaments have been so badly torn that splints are necessary, as in a case of fracture. In such cases the use of strips of adhesive plaster put on before swelling becomes serious will often do away with the necessity for splints or a plaster cast.

SPRAT, a small fish of the herring family, rarely more than six inches long. At one time the sprat was thought to be the young of the herring, the pilchard or the shad, but it can be easily distinguished from the young of

any of these fishes by means of the sharply-notched edge of the abdomen. It is found in the North Atlantic and Mediterranean and on the southern coasts of the United States. It is considered a delicious, well-flavored and wholesome fish.

SPRING, the season of the year between winter and summer, beginning with the vernal equinox, about March 21, and ending with the summer solstice, about June 21.

SPRING, a stream of water flowing from the earth. Springs have their origin in the water that falls upon the earth in the form of rain or snow, which sinks through porous soils till it arrives at a layer of rock through which it cannot pass, where it forms subterranean reservoirs at various depths. When the pressure of the water which fills the channels through which it has descended is sufficient to overcome the resistance of the overlying mass of the earth, the water breaks through the upper strata and gushes forth in a spring. It may find some natural channel or crevice through which to issue.

In descending and rising through various mineral masses, the water of springs often becomes charged with gaseous, saline, earthy or metallic substances, as carbonic acid gas, sulphureted hydrogen gas, nitrogen, carbonate of lime, silica and carbonate of iron. When these substances are present in considerable quantity, the springs become what are known as *mineral springs*, of which Saratoga Springs, New York, and the springs of Carlsbad, Bohemia, are good examples (see MINERAL WATERS). Warm and hot springs are common, especially in volcanic countries (see THERMAL SPRINGS).

Some springs run for a time and then stop altogether, after a time run again and again stop; these are called *intermittent springs*. Others do not cease to flow, but discharge a small quantity of water for a certain time and then give out a greater quantity; these are called *variable springs*. Springs are most numerous in mountainous and hilly regions, where the underground water finds ready outlets. See ARTESIAN WELL.

SPRING, an elastic body used for relieving concussion, for furnishing motive power, or for controlling the motion of machines. Springs are made of various materials, such as steel wire, coiled spirally; steel rods or plates or strips of steel, suitably joined, as in springs for automobiles and railway cars, masses of India rubber, which, because of its

elasticity, will resume its former position as pressure is removed.

There are many patterns of springs, ranging from the delicate hairspring in the watch to the heavy springs found in locomotives. In the ordinary gunlock, the spring imparts motion to the hammer by being suddenly released from a strong tension. In the spring balance, the spring indicates the weight of the object placed on the scale pan. In the safety valve, it indicates the pressure of steam in a boiler and causes the valve to open at the proper time. Numerous other uses of the spring are also common.

SPRINGBOK, a species of antelope, closely allied to the gazelle, formerly found in vast herds in South Africa. Both the flesh and the hide are valuable, and it is therefore much hunted. It is a beautiful animal, of graceful form and fine colors—dull brown on the upper parts and pure white beneath,



SPRINGBOK

with a broad band of deep red where the colors meet on the flanks, and a white band extending down the back. It is larger than the roebuck, and its neck and limbs are much longer and more delicate. The horns are slightly curving and are small in the female.

SPRINGFIELD, ILL., the capital of the state, the fifth in size, ranking after Chicago, East Saint Louis, Peoria and Rockford. It is the county seat of Sangamon County. It is situated 185 miles southwest of Chicago, on the Baltimore & Ohio, the Chicago & Alton, the Illinois Central, the Chicago, Springfield and Saint Louis, the Wabash, the Chicago & Illinois Midland and the Illinois Terminal (electric) railroads. Four major

bus lines enter the city. It maintains a municipal airport. The city is compactly built and regularly laid out, with wide, beautiful, shaded streets. The most prominent structure is the state capitol, with a massive dome reaching 364 feet. The magnificent Lincoln monument and mausoleum, erected with funds contributed by citizens throughout the nation, which contains the remains of the martyred President, his wife, two children and one grandson, is located about a mile and a half from the capitol, in Oak Ridge Cemetery. The old capitol, now serving as the county courthouse, and the Lincoln residence, which is owned by the state, are interesting features.

The educational institutions include the Concordia Theological Seminary, the Springfield Junior College, the state historical library and museums and the Lincoln Library. Among the important public buildings are the county courthouse, the state capitol, the supreme court building, the Illinois Memorial centennial building, the state fair buildings, the Public Service Building and the Federal building. There are two hospitals and a sanatorium, and seven parks that cover 600 acres. The city is the seat of the Illinois Supreme Court and of a United States District Court. The state fair is held annually in this city. The surrounding territory is a rich farming and coal-mining district, and Springfield has a large trade in both agricultural and coal products. Its brick, tile and stucco industries are very extensive. The widely-known Springfield watches are manufactured here. Other manufactures include engines, boilers, lumber, shoes, mattresses and fabrics, machinery and tools.

Springfield was settled in 1819, was chosen as county seat in 1823, was incorporated as a town in 1832, was made the state capital in 1837 and was chartered as a city in 1840. It is governed by a city commission. Springfield entertains many conventions and thousands of visitors annually. Population, 1920, 59,183; 1930, 71,864.

SPRINGFIELD, Mass., third city of the state in size and the county seat of Hampton County, is about 100 miles nearly west of Boston and 136 miles northeast of New York City, on the Connecticut River and on the Boston & Albany, the Boston & Maine and the New York, New Haven & Hartford railroads. There are two airports. The city is famous for its beautiful buildings and

streets. Forest Park covers an area of 1,000 acres. Smaller parks and squares contain monuments and statues such as those of Miles Morgan, President McKinley and the Saint-Gaudens remarkable statue of *The Puritan*.

The municipal group of buildings is noteworthy; it consists of an auditorium seating 4,000 persons, an administration building and the campanile. The twelve bells of the chime are linked up with the municipal clock so that they ring every quarter hour. The acoustics of the auditorium are pronounced to be perfect. Other important structures are the Carnegie library, four museums, a county courthouse, a Federal building, a union railroad station, a county law library, a hall of records and six hospitals. The Old First Church was built in 1819. The Masonic Temple accommodates 33 lodges. There are 85 churches and six libraries in the city. Hampton County is proud of its \$6,000,000 memorial bridge. The Springfield Fire and Marine Insurance and the Massachusetts Mutual Life Insurance companies possess magnificent business structures.

The educational system of Springfield has a national reputation; it includes primary, grammar, junior high, senior high, evening and vocational schools. Here also is the seat of the International Y M C A. College and of the American International College. There are boarding schools for girls, business colleges and a kindergarten training school.

The principal manufactures are electrical equipment, envelopes, valves, sporting and athletic goods, toys and games, fibroid products, carpets and rugs, guns and pistols, stationery, bicycles and motorcycles, radios. The printing and publishing industry is of considerable importance; *Websters International Dictionary* is published here. The United States arsenal was established here in 1795 by President Washington.

Memorial Bridge and Avenue leads to the 175-acre tract occupied by the Eastern States Exposition; it maintains 13 buildings of brick, steel and concrete and 39 other structures. The value of grounds, buildings and equipment exceeds \$3,000,000.

Springfield has 10 banking institutions; of these three are cooperatives. The first Morris plan bank in New England was organized at Springfield; it has loaned over \$23,000,000. Population, 1930, 149,900.

SPRINGFIELD, Mo., the county seat of Greene County, is 204 miles southeast of

Kansas City, on the Saint Louis & San Francisco and the Missouri Pacific railroads. It is served by three major bus lines. It is situated on a broad plateau in the heart of the Ozarks, at an altitude of 1,140 feet, and in the mineral belt of Southwestern Missouri. It is reached by four Federal and three state highways. Important industries are railroad shops, butter making, coffee roasting, vegetables and flowers, flour, lumber, office fixtures, printing supplies, school furniture and religious books, more than 100 manufacturing plants are in operation. In the vicinity are lead and zinc mines. Drury College, a state teachers college, Central Bible Institute, a girls' private academy and a business college are the institutions for higher education. There are 11 parks covering 300 acres. The principal buildings are the Federal building, court house, the Shrine Mosque, the Missouri Pythian Home; the United States Medical Center is situated two miles distant. An Indian trading post was established here in 1819; the city was incorporated in 1833. It is under a commission form of government. Population, 1930, 57,527.

SPRINGFIELD, OHIO, the county seat of Clark County, 45 miles west of Columbus, on the Erie, the Pennsylvania, the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & Saint Louis, and the Detroit, Toledo & Ironton railroads. Several electric roads enter the city; the National Old Trails Road passes through it. One publishing house sends out an average of 11,000,000 magazines monthly. Over 200 manufacturing plants produce an exceptionally wide variety of goods. The state homes of the Masons, the Odd Fellows, and the Knights of Pythias and a memorial home for aged women are adjacent to the city. Wittenberg College (Lutheran), founded in 1845, is the leading educational institution. There are three hospitals and nine hotels. Springfield was chartered as a city in 1850. Population, 1930, 68,743.

SPRUCE, the name of a group of trees of the cone-bearing family, characterized by evergreen leaves, tall, tapering trunks and slender, horizontal branches. The leaves are stiff and pointed, and are arranged around the branch in a spiral. The bark is a dark or reddish brown, and is scaly. There are several spruces, of which the following are the most valuable:

The *Norway spruce* yields the valuable timber known under the name of *white*, or

Christiania, deal. It is a native of a large part of northern Europe, and is a noble tree, of conical habit of growth, reaching sometimes the height of 150 feet. The *white spruce* and the *black spruce* are both natives of North America. The latter attains the height of seventy or eighty feet, with a diameter of from fifteen to twenty inches. Its timber is of great value, on account of its strength, lightness and elasticity, and it is often employed for the yards of ships, the sides of ladders and very extensively in making paper pulp. The *Douglas spruce*, known among lumbermen as *Oregon fir*, is found in the northwestern part of North America, extending from Oregon into Alaska. It reaches a height of 100 to 150 feet, and next to the giant sequoia is the largest tree in America. Its lumber is valuable for many purposes. See HENLOCK.

SPURGE FAMILY, or **EUPHORBIA-CEAE**, *u for be d'se ah*, a group of herbs, shrubs and trees, widely distributed over the globe and comprising about 4,000 species.



EUPHORBIA

Most of them have a biting, milky juice, which is of high commercial value, being the source of castor oil, croton oil, cassava and rubber. The plants have small, inconspicuous flowers, but some of them, notably the poinsettia, have brightly colored bracts. Some of the plants resemble cacti. The fruit, which is three-lobed, is dry and rather fleshy. Most of the tropical species are known as Euphorbias.

SPURGEON, *spur'jun*, CHARLES HADDON (1834-1892), a celebrated English preacher,

born at Kelvedon and educated at Colchester. When he was but a boy he began to preach, after having joined the Baptist Church; and in 1854 he became pastor of a chapel in New Park Street, London. Soon great crowds were going to hear him, and in 1861 the great Metropolitan Tabernacle, with 6,000 seats, was built to accommodate his large audiences. Here he preached for the remainder of his life.

CHARLES HADDON
SPURGEON

Besides his ordinary ministrations and the publication, after 1855, of a weekly sermon, he founded many benevolent societies, including the Stockwell Orphanage and the Pastors' College. In 1887 he severed his connection with the Baptist Union, on account of what he called the "down grade" tendency of the Church. He was the author of numerous volumes, of which the best known are *The Saint and his Savior*, *John Ploughman's Talk*, *Feathers for Arrows*, *The Treasury of David*, *Types and Emblems*, *The Metropolitan Tabernacle Farm Sermons*, *The Present Truth*, *Storm Signals*, *Salt Cellars*, *Speeches at Home and Abroad*.

SPY, in military usage, any person who by deception obtains or attempts to obtain information concerning a belligerent for the benefit of the enemy. A person is considered a spy only when he acts under false pretences. A soldier who, for the time being, discards his own uniform and puts on the uniform of the enemy or some other disguise in order to penetrate the enemy's line is, according to international rules of warfare, a spy. If caught in the act he may be put to death after having received a fair trial and been proved guilty. No soldier or civilian is considered a spy who openly carries out a mission such as delivering a message across an enemy's territory, or reconnoitering over it in aeroplane or balloon. That which constitutes an enemy a spy is an act of deceit.

SQUADRON, a regulated arranged military body, specifically one of the divisions of a cavalry regiment, usually composed of

four troops It is commanded by a major and includes from 120 to 200 men. The term is also applied to two or more war vessels detailed under a single command. See ARMY.

SQUARE, in geometry, a figure with four equal sides and equal angles This figure is considered the unit for the measurement of areas, though actually the unit of area measurement is no longer considered to be perfectly square, but merely to contain the same amount of surface space as would a square figure whose sides were of the length of the corresponding linear unit

To square a figure, a polygon, for example, is to reduce the surface to a square of equivalent area by mathematical means. This can be done by finding the area of the polygon and extracting the square root, the result being one side of the required square To square a circle is impossible, but the attempt to do so was one of the first problems to engage the attention of the mathematicians of antiquity. In arithmetic and algebra the square of a number is the product obtained by multiplying a number by itself. Thus, 64 is the square of 8, for $8 \times 8 = 64$.

SQUARE MEASURE, the system of measurement used in measuring surfaces. It derives its name from the *square unit*, upon which the system depends All measurements are based upon the square, and the area of any figure is found by resolving it into an equivalent square or rectangle. The two underlying principles of square measure are:

1 The area of a rectangular surface is equal to the product of its length by its breadth, expressed in square units

2 When the area and one dimension of a rectangular surface are given the other dimension is equal to the quotient derived by dividing the area by the given dimension See MEASUREMENT, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, METRIC SYSTEM

SQUARE ROOT. See ARITHMETIC, material for eighth year.

SQUASH, *skwosh*, a garden vegetable belonging to the gourd family The plants, which are tough and robust, with large leaves and small yellow flowers, occur in two varieties, one a trailing vine, the other a bush. The summer squash, a bushy plant, produces a thin-skinned fruit, gourd-shaped or shaped like an acorn in its cup and sometimes twenty inches in diameter. Winter squash, usually of the vine variety, has a larger fruit, thick-skinned, which matures in the fall and,

when properly stored in a dry cellar, keeps through the winter.

Squash Bug, a name given to two species of insects, best known as destroyers of squash, pumpkin and other similar plants The species which is particularly destructive in the United States is a cylindrical ill-smelling beetle, about half an inch long, with wing cases striped with black and yellow. The adults, dormant in winter, produce young in the spring, and these feed on the sap of the young plants. Killing the old bugs before the eggs are laid is a preventive outweighing any other remedy.

SQUATTER, *skwo'tur*, **SOVEREIGNTY**, or **POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY**, terms used in American history to denote the right of the inhabitants of any territory to govern themselves without Federal interference The first term specifically relates to that right as applied to an unorganized territory, inhabited by so-called "squatters," that is persons who had taken up land without purchasing titles

The doctrine of "squatter sovereignty" assumed importance during the slavery controversy, when it was championed especially by Stephen A Douglas, who incorporated it into the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. In this bill it was declared that the people of the territories should have the right to decide whether slavery should be admitted or excluded. Though the theory was first proposed in order to protect the rights of slaveholders and to allow the extension of slavery, it was ultimately repudiated by the South, which was upheld by the dictum of Chief Justice Taney in the Dred Scott case It finally led to a division between the Northern and Southern Democrats.

SQUID, *skwid*, a popular name for many species of ten-armed animals, especially the cuttlefish. The animal has a tapering body and a fin on each side of the tail. Some are of a bluish color, speckled with purple The American squids range from Newfoundland to the Virginia coast and are much used as bait by codfishers Excepting the cuttlefish, they are of no economic value

SQUILL, a plant native to the Mediterranean shores and popularly called *sea onion*. It has large bulbs of medicinal value Squill, formerly used in cases of croup and other bronchial affections, has been largely superseded by other remedies which are less stimulating to the heart and less irritating to the stomach and intestines.

The plant belongs to the lily family, has a spreading perianth, an ovary of three parts, in a three-cornered capsule are cells containing the seeds.

SQUINTING, or **STRABISMUS**, *strabismus*, a defect of sight in which the axis of vision in one eye is turned from its proper position in relation to the other. Individuals so afflicted are said to be cross-eyed. The normal position of the eye and its direction towards objects are controlled by four straight muscles; one is attached above the eyeball, one beneath, and one on either side. If one of these muscles becomes paralyzed, that on the opposite side turns the eye out of its proper position and causes squinting. If one eye is defective or deformed, squinting is apt to arise from overstraining. The trouble is overcome by an operation, or by proper fitting of glasses; sometimes both methods of treatment are required.

SQUIRREL, the name given to a large family of small attractive rodents, or gnawing animals. Squirrels are usually of a rich, ruddy brown or a dark gray on the upper parts, merging into reddish or grayish-white on the under parts of the body; the color, however, varies with the season and climate. The head is large, and the eyes are projecting and bright. These animals are found in all parts of the world except Australia, although much more numerous in America than in Europe.

Kinds of Squirrels. *Tree squirrels* are light and agile little creatures, with strong jaws, sharp teeth and long bushy tails. *Ground squirrels* do not ascend trees but burrow in the ground; the *chipmunk* is the best-known ground squirrel. The *common squirrel* inhabits Europe and the north of Asia; while the *cat squirrel*, the *gray squirrel*, the *black squirrel*, the *red squirrel* and the *great-tailed squirrel* are American

species. The *red squirrel*, or *chickaree*, is the most widely distributed of American squirrels, it is characterized by a shrill, noisy clattering. One oriental species is remarkable because it is the only animal which assumes a purely ornamental coat in the breeding season. It is gray in the summer and takes on a brilliant orange coat in early winter, changing to gray again in early spring.

Squirrel Habits. Squirrels subsist on nuts, acorns and seeds, of which they lay up a store for winter in hollow trees or in the earth. When engaged in eating, they sit on their haunches, with their tails thrown upward on the back, in which position they grasp the food with their fore paws and gnaw it with their powerful teeth. Their nests, which consist of woody fiber, leaves and moss, are usually located in the forks of trees. The young, of which there are three or four to a litter in a season, are born in June. The fur of some of the American



SQUILL



RED SQUIRREL

species, especially those of the north, is an important article of commerce. See **FUR** AND **FUR TRADE**.

STABAT MATER, Latin phrase meaning *the Mother Stood*, is a celebrated thirteenth-century hymn describing the sufferings of the mother of Christ as she stood by the Cross. The words, in Latin, are attributed to Jacopone da Todi, a follower of Saint Francis. The poem has been set to music by a number of composers, including Palestrina, Pergolesi, Haydn, Rossini and Dvorak.

STADIUM, the name originally given to the race course of Olympia, Greece, where athletic contests were held, and later ap-

plied to all places throughout Greece where such games were celebrated. The track was elliptical in shape, and about 600 feet long. At one end was a building with accommodations for the athletes, the remainder of the surrounding space was arranged in terraces or tiers of seats for the spectators. The word *stadium* was also used by the Greeks to denote a measure of distance, corresponding to the distance between the two terminal pillars of the race course. It was equivalent to a Roman mile.

The Athenian stadium was restored in 1906 for use in the revival of the Olympian games. Several modern structures on the same or similar plan have been erected in America, some with seating capacity of 100,000 persons.

STADTHOLDER, *stad' hol der*, a title formerly given in the Netherlands to the chief executive. In 1580, when Holland and Zealand revolted against Spain and united to accept William, prince of Orange, as their ruler, they called him *stadtholder* (literally, *one who holds a city*). Upon the assassination of Prince William, the title was conferred on his son, Prince Maurice, and it remained as the title of the ruler until Holland was annexed by France, in 1802. It was finally dropped in 1814, when the Prince of Orange was declared king of the Netherlands.

STAEL-HOLSTEIN, *stak'el hold'stine*, ANNE LOUISE GERMAINE, Baroness de, known in history as *Madame de Staël* (1766-1817), one of the most brilliant figures of eighteenth-century France. The daughter of Jacques Necker, Minister of Finance to Louis XVI, she was carefully educated and brought up in the most intellectual atmosphere of her time. In 1786 she married Baron de Staël-Holstein, Swedish ambassador at the French court. The marriage was not happy, and resulted in a friendly separation.

In 1788 Madame de Staël printed her *Letters on Jean Jacques Rousseau*. At the outbreak of the Revolution she exercised considerable political power, by reason of her father's high position at court and because of her own wit and womanly charm. To escape the Reign of Terror she fled to her father's estate in Switzerland, after vainly endeavoring to save her friends and the royal family. Afterwards she returned to Paris, where she again became an influence in politics. Subsequently she was banished by

Napoleon, on account of her bold advocacy of liberal views. Her husband died in 1802, and in 1811 she secretly married a young officer, De Rocca. This second marriage became known only after her death. Among her writings are the novels *Delphine* and *Corinne*, *On Germany*, *Thoughts on the French Revolution* and *Ten Years of Exile*.

STAFF, in military and naval usage, a body of officers not having command but attached in an advisory or executive capacity to a commanding officer. In the United States in time of war each military unit larger than a company—that is an army, a corps, a division or a brigade—has its headquarters and staff; each garrison, or body of troops stationed at a fort, also has its staff. A headquarters staff of an army in the field comprises a personnel staff of two or more aides-de-camp; ten officers, one of whom is *chief of staff*, and an adjutant-general, with his assistants. The composition of a garrison staff depends on the size of the garrison.

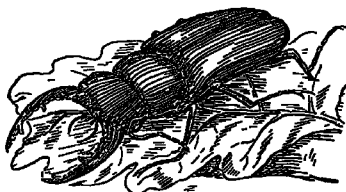
General Staff. This is a central administrative body created by Act of Congress in 1903. It is made up of four general officers, one of whom is chief of staff, four colonels, six lieutenant-colonels, twelve majors and twelve captains. It has supervision over all the bureaus of the War Department and considers all questions affecting the efficiency of the army. The chief of staff is the military adviser of the Secretary of War.

STAFF, a plaster resembling stucco, used as an outside covering for buildings and relief ornament. It is a mixture of plaster of Paris and hydraulic cement, and contains some dextrin and glycerine. Staff was used for covering the buildings of the Paris Exposition in 1889, the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago in 1893, the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at Saint Louis in 1904 and those of the two California Panama Pacific expositions. It is comparatively cheap and light and can be molded into any desired form, but it is not suitable for the exterior of permanent buildings, as it lasts only a short time. See **CEMENTS**.

STAG, the name applied to the male of several species of deer, but commonly restricted in its application to the male of the red deer, after the animal has reached the age of five years, the age being indicated by the horns, which branch when it is fully mature. The female is called a *hind*, the young a *calf*. The full-grown stag is about four

feet high at the shoulders. His antlers, about three and a half feet long, constitute a dangerous weapon. They are shed annually, after the breeding season. In summer the back and flanks of the animal are yellowish-brown, in winter they are reddish-brown. These deer feed on grass, buds and young shoots of trees. The stags and hinds congregate in herds; old stags, called *harts*, roam alone. The North American *wapiti* is a related deer. See **DEER**.

STAG BEETLE, one of a large group of beetles, many species of which are found in North America. The male has enormous horny and toothed mandibles, which bear a certain resemblance to stag antlers. The



GIANT STAG BEETLE

giant stag beetle of the Southern states has mandibles an inch long, one third the length of the body. These beetles feed on the tender leaves and other succulent parts of plants. The eggs are deposited on trees, in the crevices of the bark, and when they hatch the small white worms burrow under the bark and feed on the soft substance beneath it, often causing the bark to peel off.

STAG HOUND, a large, powerful white hound, marked with black and tan, and probably bred from the bloodhound. As the name indicates, these dogs were formerly used for hunting deer. They have been largely replaced by foxhounds.

STAINED GLASS, glass colored in the making by some special chemical process or by the application of pigment to the surface of the finished article. Formerly all colored glass used in decorative windows was colored in the molten state. The molded glass was cut in shapes required by the design and the pieces were put together by means of lead strips. Such was the method in medieval times. To-day better results are achieved by painting, by graduating the thickness of glass, thus producing the effect of shading, and by fusing together colored slabs on a larger plate of colorless glass. All these devices obviate the necessity of breaking

the design up with numerous joining leads, and make possible larger panes of glass. The United States produces the best stained glass in the world. This is largely owing to the experiments of two men—John La Farge and L. C. Tiffany.

STALACTITE, *stal'ak'tite*, a beautiful formation on the roofs of caves caused by the action of water containing lime, silica and iron. The water percolates through the rock, and as it evaporates, these substances solidify. Stalactites usually take the form of icicles, but occasionally they form columns extending from the roof to the floor of the cavern. Similar masses of small size are frequently to be seen, also, hanging from stone bridges. Simultaneously with the formation of the stalactite, a similar but upward growth, called a *stalagmite*, takes place at the spot where the successive drops of water fall and evaporate. See **CAVE**.

STALAGMITE, *stal'ag'mite*. See **STALACTITE**.

STALIN, *stah'leen*, JOSEPH (1879–), leader and autocrat of the Communist government of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (Russia) after the death of Lenin. His official position is that of secretary of the Communist party, but his is the most potent influence in the Soviet Union. Stalin's real name was Dzugashvili, he was born in the Caucasus region in the south, of peasant parents, and was intended for the priesthood in the state Church. When he became a follower of Karl Marx, he abandoned religion and became a revolutionist. His early strength lay in his close association with Lenin and his deep interest in the development of the youth of Russia along bolshevik lines. It was Stalin who inaugurated the Five-Year Plan for agriculture and industry in 1928.

STAMFORD, CONN., a city in Fairfield County, thirty-three miles northeast of New York City, on Long Island Sound and on the New York, New Haven & Hartford railroad. The location is attractive, and many New York business men have their homes here. There is regular steamship connection with New York City. The place is well known for its manufacture of locks and keys, and it also produces dyestuffs, rubber products, typewriters, insulated wire, paints, wood-working machinery, and foundry and machine shop products. It contains the Ferguson Library, a city hospital, Saint John's

Hospital and Home and several private sanitariums. Stamford was settled in 1641 by a company from Wethersfield, on the site of an old Indian village called Rippowam. It was made a borough in 1830 and was chartered as a city in 1894. Population, 1920, 35,096, in 1930, 46,346.

STAMMERING, a defect of speech due to lack of proper control of the muscles used in vocal articulation. It occurs in a number of forms, one that is most common being *stuttering*, which is rapid repetition of monosyllables or initial syllables of words beginning with *p*, *b*, *t* or *d*. Less frequent are the cases in which syllables are dropped, or those in which the afflicted person is momentarily stricken dumb. It is believed by some that the tendency to stammering is inherited, but the probabilities are that cases of stammering develop in children as the result of association rather than of heredity.

As in all other cases of nervous troubles, stammering can often be overcome. Sometimes it is found to be the resulting accompaniment of faulty eyesight, adenoids or other physical defect or ailment. A stammering child should have medical examination, and if the cause is physical and can be removed it should have attention, since to neglect treatment may be to allow a habit to become fixed, whereas timely aid may result in a cure. Stammerers always receive help by practicing breath control, and frequently by singing lessons. They need all the cooperation they can get from their fellows, for there is nothing quite so bad for one who stammers as the self-consciousness resulting from ridicule and impatience on the part of those around them.

STAMP, a small bit of paper bearing an imprint authorized by law and intended to be attached by a coating of gum to a dutiable or taxable article. Under the excise laws internal revenue stamps are required on snuff, tobacco and cigars; and in times of war many articles of commerce require revenue stamps. Sometimes legal documents also require government stamps and are void without them. At all times letters, papers or packages to be transmitted by mail must be stamped. See **INTERNAL REVENUE; POSTAGE**.

Stamp Act, an act regulating the imposition of stamp duties; specifically, an act passed by the British Parliament in 1765, requiring all legal documents, commercial papers and newspapers to be written or

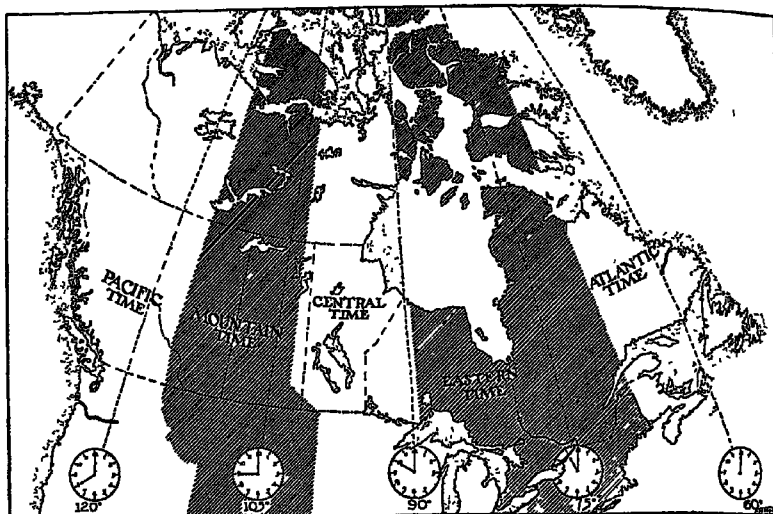
printed on paper stamped by the British government.

After the close of the French wars there grew up in England a feeling that taxes ought to be raised in America as a contribution to the war debt, and for the military defense of the colonies. The colonies expressed their willingness to be taxed by their own representatives in colonial assemblies, but declared they would not be taxed by Parliament—a body in which they were not represented, that taxation without representation was unjust.

The Stamp Act was proposed in March, 1764, and was passed in March, 1765. When the news was received in America, riots in opposition broke out. In October the colonies held a convention and sent an address to the king, acknowledging his sovereignty, but denying the right of Parliament to tax them. In March, 1766, the Act was repealed, but the taxing power of Parliament was reiterated. This episode was one of the immediate causes of the war of the American Revolution.

STANDARD OIL COMPANY, a combination of American companies formed for the purpose of controlling the petroleum industry. Before its dissolution in 1911 by the United States Supreme Court, it was considered the most powerful industrial organization in the world. In 1909 suit was brought in the United States Circuit Court at Saint Louis for the dissolution of the company, on the ground that it was a combination in restraint of trade, and that its existence was in violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law (see **TRUSTS**). The court ordered the company dissolved within thirty days, but the case was appealed to the Supreme Court, and a final decision was not reached until 1911, when the Supreme Court affirmed the decision of the lower court, but gave the company six months to adjust its affairs.

At the time of this decision the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, as it was legally known, controlled about seventy oil companies. The dissolution did not discontinue the Standard Oil Company; it compelled this company to release its control over the other companies, and this was accomplished by relinquishing its ownership of the stocks of these companies to the former stockholders. However, since the holders of the majority of the stock in these companies were the men who controlled the Standard Oil



STANDARD TIME CHART FOR CANADA
Showing boundaries and differences in time.

Company, the dissolution had but little effect upon the methods employed in carrying on the various branches of the petroleum industry.

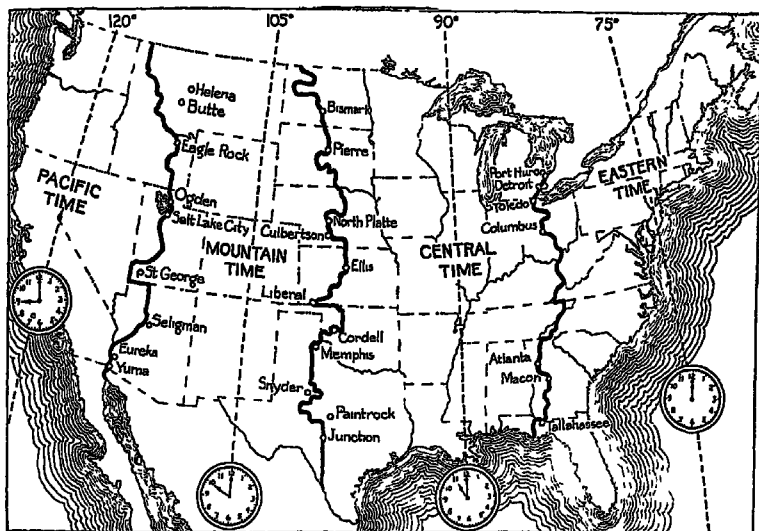
The Standard Oil Company was the outgrowth of organizations and methods originated and perfected by John D. Rockefeller and his associates in the petroleum industry. The first steps leading to it were taken in 1867, soon after the industry began to assume large proportions.

STANDARDS, UNITED STATES NATIONAL BUREAU OF, a bureau of the Department of Commerce of the United States government, which has custody of the national standards of weights and measures. The Bureau of Standards was organized in 1901, to take the place of the Office of Standard Weights and Measures. It is in charge of a director, who employs such assistants as the work of the Bureau may require. The law establishing the Bureau requires the director to compare the national standards of weights and measures with those used in commerce, engineering, scientific investigations and educational institutions, and in the construction or reproduction of these standards, or their multiples and subdivisions and to determine the material best suited for such standards. The material selected should be such that will

not change its dimensions with a change of temperature, will not absorb moisture, and will not rust, since changes produced by any of these agencies impair the value of the standard.

The national standards of length and mass are kept in a fireproof vault in the building of the Bureau at Washington. They consist of two platinum-iridium meter bars and two standard kilograms of the same material, and were made in France.

The Bureau is organized into the divisions of Weights and Measures, Heat and Thermometry, Electricity, Optics, Structural Engineering and Miscellaneous Materials, Engineering Research and Metallurgy. The staff includes about 150 members, and their services are in constant demand, since the Bureau must test the measuring devices for the various departments of the government and their bureaus and make investigations where ordinary commercial testing facilities are lacking. It is required to prepare official specifications for much of the material purchased by the government and to test the material when purchased. It issues a number of publications of high scientific value, issues bulletins, and maintains a special laboratory at Pittsburgh for testing structural materials.



STANDARD TIME CHART FOR THE UNITED STATES

STANDARD TIME, the system of time-reckoning adopted by law or by general usage over a certain region. The turning of the earth on its axis from west to east causes a constant difference in sun time between places at different meridians; when it is noon at one place, it is afternoon at places to the east of that point, and forenoon at places farther west. This fact gives rise to many complications, especially in the operation of railroads, so for convenience an arbitrary system of time-reckoning is necessary.

In the United States. Previous to 1883 travelers were greatly inconvenienced by reason of the fact that every great railroad was run on a time system which might differ from that employed by any other railroad. For instance, a line of road from New York to Chicago would have to have all the watches of its employes set exactly alike. This made it impossible that over the entire thousand miles of line each employe could keep his watch regulated by local time. The road might declare that it would run its trains by New York time, which is about forty minutes faster than Chicago time. All employes' watches, then, along the entire line of road had to constantly register New York time,

regardless of the location of the employe. Another railroad running from Chicago to Denver might adopt Chicago time as its standard, or might choose to run on Denver time; or, if so determining, could select Omaha time, as that city is nearly midway between the two terminals.

Such conditions on all railroads could result in nothing short of confusion. A traveler might reach Denver from the east at 6 P. M., according to the schedule of the railroad on which he was riding. He might desire to go farther west than Denver, and would find that the train he wished to take left that city at 5:30 P. M. In the absence of a common standard of time adopted by these two railroads, this traveler would not know whether the departing 5:30 train left Denver at 5:30 by the time of the first railroad, or whether 5:30 meant a half-hour or an hour earlier or later than the time on which the first road was run.

This condition of things led to a conference in 1882 and resulted in the adoption through the United States and Canada of what is known as *standard time*. The first and most easterly division is termed Atlantic standard time, and embraces that territory which lies

7½° each side of the 60th degree of longitude. The standard time for the entire territory embraced within its limits is the local, or sun, time of Halifax.

The next division toward the West is embraced within the section called Eastern standard time, the 75th meridian being almost in its center; the time throughout the Eastern section is that of the 75th meridian, which is practically the local time of the city of Washington.

The next division toward the West embraces the great valley of the Mississippi, and here is the division of Central standard time; the meridian running nearly through the center of the Central territory is the 90th. The official time in the Central division is therefore practically the local time of the city of St. Louis, and is one hour earlier than the time in the Eastern division.

The next group of states to the West are joined in what is known as Mountain standard time, and the central portion is on the meridian of 105°, which is the location of the city of Denver. Therefore Denver local time is the standard time for the Mountain division; it is one hour earlier than Central time, and two hours earlier than Eastern.

Beyond the Mountain division is the final group of states, wherein Pacific standard time prevails; the meridian of longitude which establishes time for the Pacific division is the 120th. This is very close to Carson City, Nevada. Throughout this division the time is one hour earlier than in the Mountain division.

Railroads having adopted for all their purposes the standard time of the sections through which they run, citizens, in their business enterprises, have very largely fallen into line, and local or sun time is scarcely taken into consideration. For years after the adoption of standard time rural communities refused to change their watches and clocks, and therefore a double system of time prevailed. It took many people a long time to realize how easy it would be to turn their watches and clocks forward or backward the required number of minutes to harmonize them with the standard time of their section and then forget that such action was taken. Wherever this has been done, absolutely no change whatever has been necessary in manner of living or conduct of any enterprise.

In Canada. Canada is divided into zones of 15 degrees, extending 7½ degrees on each

side of the central meridians, and the central local mean time is used for all places within that zone. Thus the first and most easterly Canadian division, known as Atlantic time, includes the territory which lies 7½ degrees each side of the sixtieth degree of longitude. The standard time for the entire zone is the local or sun time of Halifax (four hours behind Greenwich time). Largely through the efforts of Sir Sanford Fleming, between the years of 1876 and 1881 the adoption of this plan was kept before the public and the government, with the result that since 1883, when a General Time Convention was held in Chicago, standard time has been in use on all railroads in North America. Besides the Atlantic zone, there are four other divisions of time in Canada which correspond with those of the United States.

The time throughout the Eastern section is practically the sun time of Ottawa. The official time in the Central division is practically the local time of the city of Port Arthur and is one hour earlier than the time in the Eastern division. Regina local time is standard time for the Mountain division; it is one hour earlier than Central, two hours earlier than Eastern and three hours earlier than Atlantic time.

Beyond the Mountain division is the last section, in which Pacific or Coast time prevails; the meridian of longitude which establishes time for this division is the 120th. The northern part of the boundary between Alberta and British Columbia runs on this meridian, but as there is no large city exactly on the line, Vancouver, 123° 5' W., is made the division point on the railroad. Throughout this division the time is one hour earlier than Mountain time and eight hours earlier than Greenwich time.

The system of counting time by twenty-four hours instead of twelve is in use on all the Canadian railways west of Lake Superior and also on the Intercolonial Railway between Halifax and Montreal. Thus, twenty o'clock is eight o'clock at night, midnight being the beginning and end of each twenty-four hour period. The twenty-four hour notation is part of the scheme of time reckoning worked out by Sir Sanford Fleming.

STANDISH, MILES (1584-1656), an American colonist and soldier, born in Lancashire, England. He served in the English army in the Netherlands, and, though not a member of the Leyden congregation,

sailed with the *Mayflower* colony to Massachusetts in 1620. He became the strongest leader of the Pilgrims in their struggle against the Indians. During the first winter his wife died, and the traditional account of his effort to secure a second wife has been made familiar by Longfellow in *The Courtship of Miles Standish* (which see). In 1625 he was sent on a mission to England, but returned in the following year and settled at Duxbury, Mass., where he died. Standish was the military head of the colony, and for a long time was its treasurer. A monument surmounted by a statue has been erected to his memory at Duxbury.

STANFORD, LELAND (1824-1893), an American capitalist and philanthropist, born in Watervliet, N. Y. He studied law, moved to Port Washington, Wis., and practiced his profession there for three years. In 1852 he went to California as a mining prospector, and after four years established the mercantile business which was the foundation of his subsequent fortune of \$50,000,000. He was one of the promoters of the Central Pacific Railway. In 1861 he was elected governor of California, and from 1885 to 1891 served as United States Senator from California. He will be remembered chiefly as the founder of Leland Stanford Junior University (now Stanford University), a memorial to his son who died in Rome at the age of sixteen. See *LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY*.

STANLEY, HENRY MORTON, Sir (1841-1904), an African explorer, born at Denbigh, Wales. His father, John Rowlands, died when the boy was but two years old. In 1857 he shipped as cabin boy to New Orleans and was there adopted by a merchant, whose name he assumed. Stanley enlisted in the Confederate army, and was taken prisoner in the Battle of Shiloh. He escaped, and after a visit to his home in Wales he volunteered



HENRY MORTON
STANLEY

into the United States navy and became an ensign on the ironclad *Ticonderoga*. At the close of the war he went West as a newspaper correspondent, and as correspondent for

the New York *Herald* he joined the Abyssinian expedition of 1868. He afterward traveled in Spain, and it was while there in 1869 that he was commissioned by the proprietor of the New York *Herald* "to go and find Livingstone." After visiting the Crimea, Palestine, Persia and India, he reached Zanzibar in the early part of 1871, and thence he proceeded across Africa, in search of Livingstone (see *LIVINGSTONE, DAVID*). He met and relieved Livingstone at Lake Tanganyika in November of the same year and returned to England. He then acted as the *Herald's* correspondent during the Ashanti War.

As correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph* and the New York *Herald*, in 1874 he undertook an expedition into Africa, where he explored the equatorial lake region, and traced the Congo River from the interior to its mouth. For the purpose of developing this vast region he returned in 1879 under the auspices of the International African Association, founded by the king of the Belgians. In this territory stations were planted, steam navigation was established and in 1885 the territory received the name of the Congo Free State. In 1887 Stanley organized an expedition for the relief of Emin Pasha. This time he entered Africa on the west by way of the Congo; and after a series of extraordinary marches through the forest region, he met Emin Pasha in the neighborhood of Albert Nyanza, and brought the pasha and his followers to the coast. Upon his return to England, in 1895, he became very popular. Having three years previously become a naturalized citizen of Great Britain, he was elected to Parliament and worked earnestly for the development of British interests in Africa. He wrote *How I Found Livingstone*, *Through the Dark Continent*, *In Darkest Africa* and *My Dark Companions*. Next to Livingstone, Stanley was the greatest of African explorers.

STANOVOL, stahn o vol', MOUNTAINS, a range of low mountains in Northeastern Asia, extending from the Mongolian frontier to East Cape, on Bering Strait. A spur traverses the peninsula of Kamchatka. The length of the chain is 3,000 miles. Although the highest point, Mount Tehokhondo, is 8,000 feet, the average elevation is not great, the configuration being more in the nature of an elevated plateau. North of parallel 60° the lower slopes are densely wooded; south of this the summits are bare. The

range is rich in minerals, which as yet are little developed.

STANTON, EDWIN McMASTERS (1814-1869), the great American Secretary of War during Lincoln's administration. He was born at Steubenville, Ohio, attended Kenyon College, studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1836. In

1856 he opened a law office at Washington, D. C., where he acquired a large practice before the Supreme Court. He became attorney-general in 1860. Shortly after the outbreak of hostilities between the North and South, President Lincoln ap-



EDWIN M. STANTON

pointed him head of the War Department, and his acceptance of the office marked the beginning of a vigorous military policy. After Lincoln's death he remained in the Cabinet, but soon came into conflict with President Johnson over the latter's reconstruction policy. Johnson's effort to remove the Secretary brought about his impeachment. When the President was acquitted Stanton resigned. He was appointed an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court by President Grant, but died a few days after the appointment was announced.

STANTON, ELIZABETH CADY (1815-1902), a woman suffragist and reform advocate, born in Johnstown, N. Y. She was educated in the local academy and by private teachers.

Her father was an eminent lawyer and a member of Congress. The daughter inherited a legal mind and strong reasoning powers. She married Henry B. Stanton, a prominent Abolitionist and a man in full sympathy with her ideas. She met Lucretia Mott while attending the World's Anti-Slavery Convention in London, and thereafter the two labored together in the cause of woman's rights.



ELIZABETH CADY STANTON

In 1848 Mrs Stanton called the first woman's rights convention ever held in America, to assemble at her home in Seneca Falls, N. Y. Three years later she became associated with Susan B. Anthony, and they worked jointly in the cause of woman's rights for the remainder of Mrs. Stanton's life.

Mrs. Stanton had a charming personal appearance, and was a good writer and a fluent speaker. She attained a national reputation as an author and lecturer and exerted a strong influence in behalf of the cause which she advocated. She held many prominent positions in women's organizations and was active in securing higher education for women. Some of her best-known writings are *The Solitude of Self*, *Self-Government the Best Means of Self-Development*, *Eighty Years and More*, an autobiography, and *A History of Woman Suffrage*.

STANTON, FRANK LEBBY (1857-1927), an American poet and journalist, born at Charleston, S. C. He had a common school education, was apprenticed to a printer and early entered the field of journalism. He was one of the first poet humorists to edit a column of witty comment and satiric criticism of current events. His column "News from Billville," in the *Atlanta Constitution*, brought him wide notice and popularity, and his negro dialect verse added to his fame. His poetry appeals by reason of its simplicity and optimistic tone. His books are *Songs of the Soil*, *Songs from Dime*, *Up from Georgia and Little Folks down South*.

STARCH, a white, odorless, tasteless compound found in all plants except fungi. Chemically it is known as a carbohydrate, or compound of carbon, oxygen and hydrogen. It constitutes one of man's chief foods, and is an important heat and energy producer. The processes by which starch is produced in a plant are not known to the botanist or the chemist. It is sometimes stored in the leaves, but is more plentiful in thick roots, tubers and seeds. It abounds in arrowroot, potatoes and wheat.

Starch is a soft, white powder. Microscopic examination shows that it consists of tiny grains, varying in size and formation according to the plant, the grains of potato starch being among the largest, those of wheat and rice among the smallest. It will not dissolve in cold water, alcohol or ether; but if boiled in water it forms a paste.

Starch when subjected to dry heat changes to dextrin, and from this is derived, through fermentation, the substance known as dextrose, or grape sugar.

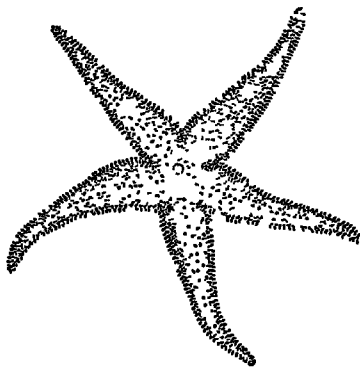
Starch is used for food and for various industrial purposes. Its chief use in industry is as a stiffening for clothes in the laundry. That used for industrial purposes is obtained from rice, potatoes, wheat and sago. Rice starch, which is preferred for laundry purposes, is prepared by steeping the grains in an alkaline solution. Potato starch is obtained by merely steeping the potatoes, mashing them to a pulp, and after they have remained for a time in a settling tank, drying with gentle heat. To separate the starch from wheat the grains are fermented, the gluten dissolves, and in the washing process which follows the gluten and starch are separated. In addition to its use in laundries, starch is employed in the manufacture of dextrin; it is also used as a thickener in calico printing and for numerous miscellaneous purposes.

The value of the starch annually manufactured in the United States is more than \$9,000,000. Most of it is made from Indian corn, which of all known plants contains the highest percentage of starch (77%). Rice contains 76% starch, wheat 54.75%, and potatoes 18.5%.

STAR CHAMBER, formerly an English court of civil and criminal jurisdiction at Westminster, said to have taken its name from the star-decorated room in which it was held. Originally a committee of the Privy Council, it was remodeled during the reign of Henry VII to include four high officers of state, with power to add to their number a bishop, a temporary lord of the council and two justices of the courts of Westminster. It had jurisdiction over forgery, perjury, riots, maintenance, fraud, libel and conspiracy cases, and it could inflict any punishment short of death. Its trials were without jury, and the abuses which this made possible led to the abolition of the court in the reign of Charles I. To-day any secret meeting to deliberate on public matters is called a *star-chamber* session.

STARFISH, an interesting sea animal shaped much like a five-pointed star, belonging to the group of marine animals known as *echinoderms*, meaning *spiny-skinned*. The fish consists of a central disk from which radiate five arms, and the entire body

is encased in a tough skin covered with tiny spines. In the center of the under surface of the disk is a mouth, and from this pass



STARFISH

five grooves, each leading to the tip of one of the points. There is a small eye at the tip of each arm. Double rows of tiny suction cups along these grooves serve for purposes of locomotion and for organs of smell. They also serve the animal in capturing its prey—oysters, mussels, snails and other mollusks. By these means the starfish can pull upon an oyster shell with such force that the valves break open. Its raids upon some of the oyster beds of the Atlantic coast cause an annual loss of many thousands of dollars.

STARK, JOHN (1728-1822), an American soldier, born at Londonderry, N. H. While still a young boy, he was captured by the Saint Francis Indians and adopted into the tribe. He fought in the last French and Indian war, and at the opening of the Revolution he raised a regiment, which he led to Cambridge, and took a prominent part in the Battle of Bunker Hill. He was present with Washington at the battles of Trenton and Princeton, but resigned his commission in April, 1777. At the approach of Burgoyne, however, in the fall of the same year, he raised a regiment of New Hampshire troops and completely routed a force of Tories and Hessians at Bennington, August 16. He was also present at the Battles of Saratoga and was made a brigadier-general in 1777. Stark was a member of the André court-martial and served at the head of important departments until the close of the war. He was one of those who, in 1776,

pledged their private fortunes to pay the soldiers, in order to induce them to enlist for a second term.

STARLING, a European bird related to the blackbird. It has a short tail, long and pointed wings and a sharp bill. The plumage the first year is brown; afterwards it is blackish, with a greenish luster, occasionally purplish. The shoulders are brown, and the wing coverts have light edges. The females are more soberly colored. Starling nests are placed in ruined walls or in the branches, and five pale blue eggs are laid. The birds feed upon insects, and are often found near domestic animals catching the insects that the latter attract.

Starlings have a variety of notes, and some species have clear whistles or rich songs. They thrive in captivity and improve in their songs. The common starling was introduced into the United States in 1890, and the birds are now numerous in the Eastern states.

STAR-NOSED MOLE, a North American genus of moles, distinguished by bearing at the extremity of the muzzle a remarkable structure of fleshy and somewhat cartilaginous rays, disposed in the form of a star.

STAR OF BETHLEHEM, a common spring garden plant of the lily family, with white, waxy and starlike flowers. It is a native of Europe, but it is naturalized in the United States.

STAR ROUTE, a route in the United States over which mail is transported in bulk by private contract after it leaves a railway train or a steamboat. Such routes are called star routes because they are marked in postal guides by asterisks. The mail may be carried in a wagon, on horseback, or by a messenger on foot. Mail routes by railroads, or steamboats and rural free delivery routes are not star routes.

Star Route Frauds, frauds disclosed in connection with the postal service during the administration of President Hayes. Through the activity of a certain clique of government officers, including several Senators and Representatives, the compensation for carrying the mails over these routes was increased more than fourfold, the profits being divided between the contractors who carried the mail and the members of the ring. The leaders were prosecuted during the early part of Garfield's administration, but only one was ever punished. However, the operations of the conspirators were ended.

STARS. "One sun by day, by night ten thousand shine," wrote the poet Young, in *Night Thoughts*, in reference to the stars. These heavenly bodies are suns like the one which warms and lights the earth, but they are so far away that they appear in the sky merely as twinkling spots of light. Because they seem

to remain immovable they are often called *fixed stars*, but the name is not appropriate, for it is now known that all are in motion. The movements of some have been ascertained by astronomers, but they are at such infinite distances from the earth that to the naked eye they do not appear to change their relative positions. In order to distinguish the stars from one another the ancients divided the heavens into spaces containing groups of stars called constellations, but modern astronomers have divided the heavens by imaginary circles which correspond to the circles measuring longitude and latitude on the earth.

Magnitudes of Stars. The stars are classified according to their brightness as of different magnitudes, those of the first magnitude being the brightest. All the stars beyond the sixth or seven magnitude are called *telescopic stars*, as they cannot be seen by the naked eye. Astronomers recognize stars as small as those of the sixteenth magnitude. As to the absolute size of the stars, little is known; but the light given out by Sirius, the brightest star in the heavens, is estimated at $63\frac{1}{2}$ times that of the sun. Stars are very irregularly distributed over the heavens; in some regions scarcely one is to be seen, while in others they seem densely crowded together, especially in the portion known as the galaxy, or Milky Way. Of the stars visible to the naked eye at one time, the number probably does not exceed a few thousands, but seen through the telescope, their number is so great as to defy calculation.

Distances of the Stars. The distances of the stars from the earth are very great. The shortest distance yet found, that of a Centauri, a double star in the Southern Hemisphere, has been calculated at so great a distance that light takes $3\frac{1}{2}$ years to travel from it to our earth and a flash of light will encircle the earth in less time than one can

wink. When we look at the stars, they appear to be placed on the inside of a hollow sphere that revolves around us, and the pivot on which the sphere turns is near the North, or Polar, Star. This apparent rising and setting of the stars is due to the rotation of the earth.

Variable Stars. Many stars have been observed whose light appears to undergo a regular periodic increase and diminution of brightness, amounting, in some instances, to a complete extinction and revival. These are called *variable* and *periodic* stars. It is found that some stars, formerly distinguished by their splendor, have entirely disappeared. Such stars are called *temporary*. Many of the stars that usually appear single are found, when observed with telescopes of high magnifying power, to be really composed of two, and some of them have three or more stars close together. The colors of the stars vary considerably, red, yellow, blue and green being noticeable, and it is supposed that they differ considerably in composition, though they are probably made up of the same matter that composes the earth.

Related Articles. For names of the stars treated in these volumes, see the list accompanying the article *Astronomy*. For further information, consult the following titles

Constellations	Milky Way	Solar System
Double Stars	Planet	Sun

STAR-SPANGLED BANNER, the most popular patriotic hymn of the American people, and by Act of Congress (1931) honored as their national anthem. The words were written by Francis Scott Key in 1814, during the War of 1812, under the following circumstances: After the burning of the national capital by the British, an American official was taken captive on board the British frigate *Surprise*, stationed in Chesapeake Bay. Francis Scott Key and a friend boarded the ship in an attempt to secure the release of the prisoner, and found the frigate being prepared to bombard Fort Mchenry, a fortress near Baltimore, Md. Forced to remain on board until after the battle, the Americans watched the bombardment throughout the day (September 13) and the ensuing night, and when in the morning they saw, through a rift in the haze and smoke, the Stars and Stripes still waving over the fort, Key was inspired to write the words of his immortal song. The music is that of an old English tune called *Anacreon in Heaven*.

Below are the first, second and fourth stanzas of the anthem (the third being omitted):

Oh' say, can you see, by the dawn's early light,
What so proudly we halled at the twilight's
last gleaming?

Whose broad stripes and bright stars, thro'
the perilous fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gal-
lantly streaming?

And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting
in air,

Gave proof thro' the night that our flag was
still there

Oh' say, does the star-spangled banner still
wave

O'er the land of the free and the home of the
brave?

On the shore, dimly seen thro' the mist of
the deep,

Where the foe's haughty host in dread
silence reposes,

What is that which the breeze, o'er the
towering steep,

As it fitfully blows, half conceals, half dis-
closes?

Now it catches the gleam of the morning's
first beam,

In full glory reflected, now shines on the
stream,

'Tis the star-spangled banner Oh' long may
it wave

O'er the land of the free and the home of the
brave!

Oh' thus be it ever when freemen shall stand
Between their loved homes and the war's
desolation,

Blest with vict'ry and peace, may the
heav'n-rescued land

Praise the Pow'r that hath made and pre-
served us as a nation

Then, conquer we must, when our cause it is
just,

And this be our motto, "In God is our trust."
And the star-spangled banner in triumph
shall wave

O'er the land of the free and the home of the
brave.

STARVATION, *stahr va'shun* When food is not taken in sufficient quantities to supply the waste that is continually taking place in the various organs of the body, the tissues themselves are used to supply energy, and starvation follows. The accompanying conditions are emaciation, lowered vitality and temperature and a general weakness. Death in animals, according to Chossat, occurs when the body has lost two-fifths of its weight. Man seldom lives longer than a week or ten days when deprived of food, but he may live much longer if he lies quietly in bed and keeps warm. An Italian named Succi, and

an American, Dr. Tanner, each tried the experiment of fasting forty days without food but with a little water, and lived through the ordeal. Others have tried like experiments in the interests of medical science and have died from their effects.

STATE, an organization of people for political ends, permanently occupying a fixed territory, and possessing an organized government capable of making and enforcing law within the community. To be a sovereign state, such an organization cannot be subject to any external control. In the United States the term *state* is also applied to the political divisions which are united under the Federal government. As to its form of government a state may be an aristocracy, a monarchy or a democracy. After the beginning of the twentieth century democracy gained at the expense of other forms of government, but in Germany, Italy and Russia the rule of dictators has been powerful enough to set aside democratic principles.

A study of the state is a study of the philosophy of politics from the time of the ancient Greeks to the present day, and even an outline of such a study would be impossible in a brief article. It is generally conceded, however, that the functions or purposes of the state are to develop the moral nature of its subjects; to preserve order; to further the general welfare, and to defend its people from external attacks.

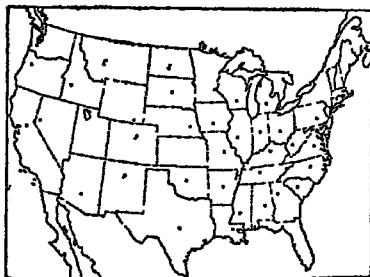
Two theories of the state are strongly set forth by their respective followers. The first is that of the *paternalistic* or *socialistic* state, in which the government confines itself to the fundamental functions of preserving peace and punishing crime. There is a happy middle ground in which the state exercises those functions which have for their purpose the greatest good to the greatest number, and leaves to the individual citizen the freedom necessary to the enjoyment of life and the pursuit of happiness. See GOVERNMENT.

A State in the United States. When the pupil begins the study of the state as a unit in political geography he should have set before him the reasons for the division of the whole country into relatively small areas, each subdivided portion a state.

The thousands upon thousands of square miles of the national domain could not be governed properly from one point, no matter if it were centrally located. The national

capital was placed at the extreme eastern part of the country; except for inconvenience in traveling to it there can be no objection to its present location, in view of the divisions that have been made for purposes of local government. Were one capital city the source of all authority and were the American people governed exclusively from it, one might justly believe that sections near at hand would be well governed, and that within such area the interests of every person would be protected, while regions far distant would suffer for lack of properly exercised control.

When the pupil begins the study of civil government he will learn that for most purposes of government—for all purposes purely local—the state does not recognize the national government as a higher authority. In such matters as only concern the people in their relation to the state the authority of the state is supreme. The national government controls affairs within the state only so far as the welfare of all of the people of all of the states is concerned. The chart below shows the locations of many capital cities,



CAPITAL CITIES

Each star locates the seat of a nearly independent government

each the absolute center of authority in all matters pertaining to the every-day needs of the people within that state. The controlling power is thus always near to all the people, that this necessary condition might prevail the state boundaries were located and state governments were organized.

It is well to study the geography of a state systematically and to cover every essential feature. Such a determination will lead older students to add to the merely geographical outlines something of government and history. In following the accompanying outline, such parts may be omitted for younger children as may seem justifiable:

Outline for Study of a State

- I. LOCATION
 - (a) Latitude
 - (b) Longitude
 - (c) Boundaries
 - (b) Navigable rivers
 - (c) Commercial centers
 - (1) Ten largest cities in order
 - (2) Population of each
 - (3) Distances from other great cities
- II. EXTENT
 - (a) Length
 - (b) Breadth
 - (c) Area
 - (d) Compare in size with other states and countries
- III. OUTLINE
 - (a) General form
 - (b) Boundaries
 - (c) If there is coast line
 - (1) Length
 - (2) Indentations
 - (3) Projections
- IV. SURFACE
 - (a) General facts
 - (1) Mountains or great hills
 - (2) Plains
 - (3) Valleys
 - (4) Watersheds
 - (b) Effects on climate
- V. DRAINAGE
 - (a) River systems
 - (b) Lakes and springs
- VI. CLIMATE
 - (a) Natural condition expected, due to latitude
 - (b) Changes wrought by physical features
 - (c) Effect on health
 - (d) Average annual rainfall
- VII. PRODUCTS
 - (a) Agricultural
 - (1) Grains
 - (2) Stock raising
 - (3) Dairying
 - (4) Fruits, etc.
 - (5) Rank among states in production
 - (b) Mineral
 - (1) Precious metals
 - (2) Iron, coal, copper, etc.
 - (3) Oil and gas
 - (4) Sections where found
 - (5) Rank among states
- VIII. COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY
 - (a) Railways and canals
- IX. POPULATION
 - (a) Rate of increase
 - (b) Per cent of native Americans
 - (c) Countries furnishing foreign-born peoples
 - (d) Where densest, and why
- X. GOVERNMENT
 - (a) State departments
 - (1) Executive
 - (2) Legislative
 - (3) Judicial
 - (4) How officers are chosen
 - (5) Length of terms
 - (b) Number of counties
 - (c) Number of members in Congress
 - (d) State institutions
 - (1) Penal
 - (2) Charitable
 - (3) Education of defectives
 - (4) How each is conducted
- XI. EDUCATION
 - (a) Public school system
 - (1) Common schools
 - (2) High schools
 - (3) Normal schools
 - (4) Industrial education
 - (a) School of Mines
 - (b) Agricultural College
 - (5) State University
 - (b) Colleges
 - (c) Large private schools
- XII. HISTORY
 - (a) Exploration and settlement
 - (b) Date made a territory
 - (c) When admitted to Union
 - (d) Events that are historical
 - (e) Famous men and women
- XIII. STATISTICAL
 - (a) Rank among states in mineral products
 - (b) Rank in farm products
 - (c) Rank in area
 - (d) Rank in population

STATE BANKS. See **BANKS**, subhead *State Banks*.

STATE, DEPARTMENT OF, one of the ten executive departments of the United States government, in charge of the Secretary of State, appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. This department was the first one organized under the Federal government. The Secretary is first in importance in the Cabinet and first Cabinet member in line of succession to the Presidency. The department has charge of all foreign affairs, both of state and of the consular service, and its business is transacted through various bureaus and divisions. The duties of the Secretary of State follow:

The Secretary of State is charged, under the direction of the President, with the duties appertaining to correspondence with the public ministers and the consuls of the United States; and with the representatives of foreign powers accredited to the United States; and to negotiations of whatever character relating to the foreign affairs of the United States. He is also the medium of correspondence between the President and the governors of the several states of the United States; he has the custody of the Great Seal of the United States, and countersigns and affixes such seal to all executive proclamations, to various commissions and to warrants for the extradition of fugitives from justice. He is also the custodian of treaties made with foreign states, and of the laws of the United States. He grants and issues passports, and exequaturs to foreign consuls in the United States are issued through his office. He publishes the laws and resolutions of Congress, amendments to the Constitution, and proclamations declaring the admission of new states into the Union.

STATEN ISLAND, an island forming a portion of the southeastern part of New York State and the southern part of Greater New York, of which it constitutes the borough of Richmond. It is situated at the entrance of New York harbor, five miles southwest of Manhattan Island, and is separated from Long Island by the Narrows and from New Jersey by Staten Island Sound. It contains many fine residences. The island is thirteen miles long and has a hilly surface, the highest elevation being about 300 feet. The principal villages are New Brighton, New West Brighton, Port Richmond, Stapleton and Tompkinsville.

STATES-GENERAL, a French legislative body which existed from 1302 until the time of the French Revolution. It was made up of members of the clergy, the nobility and representatives of the common people, or Third Estate. These last were in the beginning elected by the king, but after 1484 all members were chosen by vote. The States-General met only when called by the king in times of emergency. From 1814 the body was not assembled until the famous meeting of 1789 (see **FRENCH REVOLUTION**).

The name *States-General* is also applied to the legislative assembly of Holland.

STATES OF THE CHURCH. See **PAPAL STATES**.

STATES' RIGHTS, a term employed in political science to denote the governmental rights of the individual states belonging to a Federal Union, it being understood that there are certain matters in which the states may act without interference from the central government. History proves that in a federation of independent states freedom of action is tolerated only so long as it does not interfere with the interests of the Union. The evolution of states' rights in the United States is a typical example. In the time of Hamilton it was a debatable issue; and Jefferson's contention that the right of each state to control its affairs was paramount to the central authority led logically to the doctrine of the right of secession. The Civil War removed all claims of state sovereignty.

STATICS, that branch of dynamics which treats of the properties and relations of forces in equilibrium, equilibrium meaning that the forces are in perfect balance, so that the body upon which they act is in a state of rest. The word *dynamics* is employed as expressing the science which treats of the laws of force or power, thus corresponding closely to the old use of the term *mechanics*; and this science is divided into *statics* and *kinetics*, the first being the science which treats of forces considered as producing rest and the second as treating of forces considered as producing motion. See **DYNAMICS**.

STATISTICS, a collection of facts; especially those facts which illustrate physical, social, moral, intellectual, political, industrial and economic conditions or changes of condition, and which admit of numerical statement and of arrangement in tables. The collection of statistics may have the object merely of ascertaining numbers or of learning what

happens in an average of a great number of cases, as is the case of insurance statistics, or of detecting the causes of phenomena that appear in the consideration of a great number of individual cases—such phenomena, for example, as the decline of a certain trade or the prevalence of a certain disease. In all civilized countries the collection of statistics forms an important part of government.

STATUARY HALL, a large room on the main floor of the Capitol at Washington, which since 1864 has been used as a memorial hall. Each state is entitled to present to the government statues of two people it wishes to honor, and until recently all of these have been placed in this hall. In 1934, because of their weight and the insecurity of the hall's foundations, some of the many statues were moved to other parts of the building, where they continue to be accessible to the public. At the bottom of this page is a list of illustrious citizens who have thus far been honored.

The hall, circular in shape and directly beneath the dome, was, until 1857, the chamber of the House of Representatives, and many are the important events that have taken place within its walls. Here Madison was inaugurated President in 1809 and 1813, and Monroe in 1821; here John Quincy Adams was elected President in 1825, and here Fillmore took the oath of office.

STATUTE, the written enactment of the legislative branch of a government or of some duly authorized body acting in conformity with its will. The supreme legislative bodies are called respectively Congress, Parliament or some synonymous name. Smaller bodies, such as councils, and boards of aldermen, acting under the authority of the higher body, may pass ordinances dealing specifically with local administration.

STAUNTON, Va., the county seat of Augusta County, 135 miles northwest of Richmond, on the Baltimore & Ohio and the Chesapeake & Ohio railroads, there is an airport. The city is surrounded by an agricultural region, and is a center of apple production. Its factories produce clothing, flour, machine-shop products and a variety of small wares; in the vicinity are rayon, silk, and worsted mills. Public buildings include the city hall, courthouse, Masonic Temple, Y M C A. and new theaters. The state institutions for the deaf and dumb and the blind are located here, and the city has several seminaries for girls, a military academy and parish and other private schools. The place was settled in 1745 by people from northern Ireland and was chartered as a city in 1871. There is a state hospital and a school for deaf and dumb. Population, 1930, 11,990.

STEAD, *stead*, **WILLIAM THOMAS** (1849-1912), an English editor, born at Embleton

STATE	NAME	STATE	NAME
Alabama	J. L. M. Curry	Minnesota	Henry M. Rice
Arizona	Joseph Wheeler	Mississippi	Jefferson Davis
Arkansas	John C. Greenway	Missouri	James Z. George
California	James P. Clarke		Thomas H. Benton
	Uriah M. Rose		Francis P. Blair
	Thomas Starr King	New Hampshire	John Stark
Connecticut	Junipero Serra		Daniel Webster
	Roger Sherman	New Jersey	Philip Kearny
Delaware	Jonathan Trumbull		Richard Stockton
	John M. Clayton	New York	George Clinton
Florida	Caesar Rodney		Robert R. Livingston
	John Gorrie	North Carolina	Seaborn B. Vance
Georgia	Kirby Smith		Charles B. Aycock
	Crawford W. Long	Ohio	William Allen
Idaho	Alexander H. Stephens		James A. Garfield
Illinois	George L. Shoup	Oklahoma	Sequoyah
	James Shields	Pennsylvania	Robert Fulton
Indiana	Frances E. Willard		J. P. G. Muhlenberg
	Oliver P. Morton	Rhode Island	Nathaniel Green
	Law Wallace		Roger Williams
Iowa	James Harlan	South Carolina	John C. Calhoun
	S. J. Kirkwood		Wade Hampton
Kansas	Geo. W. Glick	Tennessee	Andrew Jackson
	John V. Ingalls		John Sevier
Kentucky	Henry Clay	Texas	Stephen F. Austin
	Ephraim McDowell		Samuel Houston
Maine	William King	Vermont	Ethan Allen
	Hannibal Hamlin		Jacob Collamer
Maryland	Charles Carroll	Virginia	R. E. Lee
	John Hanson		George Washington
Massachusetts	Samuel Adams	West Virginia	John I. Kenna
	John Winthrop		Francis H. Pierpont
Michigan	Lewis Cass	Wisconsin	James Marquette
	Zachariah Chandler		Robert M. La Follette

After nine years' experience as editor of the *Darlington Northern Echo*, he became assistant editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* under John Morley, and when the latter retired Stead became editor. He introduced the interview and many American methods into English journalism, and made a reputation for his originality. In 1890 he founded the monthly *Review of Reviews*, with branches in Australia and the United States, and was editor of it until his death. He vigorously opposed war, and his weekly paper, *War Against War*, did much to create a sentiment for universal peace. His opposition to the Boer War cost him the friendship of Cecil Rhodes. He wrote numerous books and magazine articles, including some on spiritualism, to which he became a convert. Whatever he undertook, his unbounded enthusiasm and enterprise gave him the strength of a crusader; he always fought for what he believed. He made several visits to America, and lost his life when the *Titanic* sank off the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. His books include *The Truth About Russia*, *A Study of Despairing Democracy* and *If Christ Came to Chicago*.

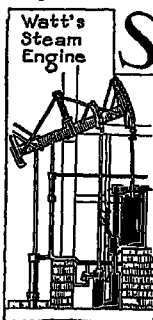
STEAM. We usually think of steam as the vapor of water formed when it is at boiling point, that is, 100° C. or 212° F. However, steam forms at all temperatures, even below freezing point, for steam is the vapor of water, and is formed whenever evaporation (which see) takes place.

Steam is lighter than water, and at boiling point it occupies about seventeen hundred times as much space. Pure steam is invisible and should be distinguished from the clouds formed by the issuing of steam from the spout of a teakettle or the escape pipe of an engine, for these clouds are caused by the condensation of the steam into minute particles of water. The expansive force of steam increases with the increase of temperature. This is taken into consideration in the operating of engines. Dry steam is secured by heating steam to a temperature above that of boiling water. The dome of the boiler is a chamber for collecting the dry steam. *Wet steam*, or *saturated steam*, is of the temperature of boiling water and contains particles of water suspended in the vapor. *Waste*, or *exhaust steam*, is that which has been used; *live steam* is that ready for use.

The great expansive force of steam, and the ease with which it can be condensed, make it

the most valuable gas for the motive power of engines. Steam is also used for warming buildings, for cooking, in meat packing and for extracting substances such as glue from animal tissues.

Related Articles. For further information on this subject consult the following titles: Boiling Point, Steam Engine, Evaporation, Turbine.



STEAM ENGINE. Every boy and girl has probably read the story of James Watt, who sat by the fire and watched the steam as it lifted the lid of his mother's teakettle, and how from these observations he worked out a device to utilize the power of steam in operating machinery. We think of Watt as the inventor of the steam engine, because

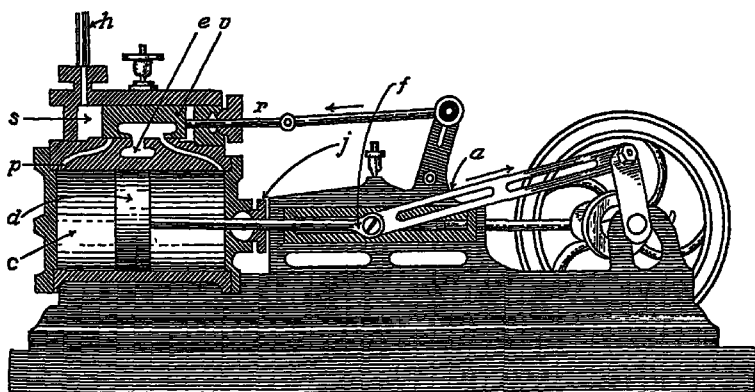
he was the first to make it a practical machine, but several others before Watt's day had attempted to invent a steam engine, and in 1705 Thomas Newcomen of England was granted a patent for an engine that was used for some time for pumping water from coal mines.

Newcomen's original engine was a clumsy device, consisting of a boiler, from which the steam was conveyed by a pipe to the interior of a cylinder, the upper end of which was open to the air, and in which the piston worked. The piston was attached to a walking beam, to the opposite end of which the pump rod was attached. Clumsy as this machine was, it worked fairly well for pumping water. The piston was raised by the pressure of steam and was forced down by the pressure of the air, after the steam in the cylinder had been condensed by the use of cold water. The valves were worked by hand until a boy who was tending the valves became tired of his task and by a system of sticks and cords so connected them with the walking beam that the engine became self-acting. Later his device was attached to all engines.

Watt's work consisted in improving Newcomen's engine. This he accomplished by constructing a cylinder that would admit steam at each end, and by attaching a valve to this cylinder so that the steam would enter one end of the cylinder as it escaped from

the other, as shown in the illustration. In Watt's engine the steam pushed the piston back, and the use of cold water for condensing the steam in the cylinder was unnecessary. Watt's improvement resulted in such a saving of fuel and increase of speed in the engine as to make it practical. He took out his first patent in 1769, and, because all steam engines constructed since have been upon Watt's plan, that is the year in which the steam engine is considered to have been invented.

Parts. The essential parts of a steam engine are the boiler; the working parts, consisting of cylinder, piston, valves and gear, the necessary appliances for connecting the piston with the machinery to be operated.



PARTS OF A STEAM ENGINE
Explanation appears in the text.

These usually consist of a connecting rod, a crank and a shaft, or fly wheel.

The cylinder is an iron box, whose inner surface has been carefully turned. Upon one side, a box called the *steam chest*, (*s*), is fastened, and from this openings, called *steam ports*, lead to each end of the cylinder (*c*). Steam is admitted through the pipe (*h*). Between the steam ports is the *exhaust port* (*e*). The valve (*v*) is connected by the eccentric rod (*r*) with the eccentric, which gives it its sliding motion. The cylinder contains the piston (*d*), to which is fastened the piston rod (*f*). As this leaves the cylinder it passes through the *stuffing box* (*j*), which is packed with cotton waste or other material, to make it steam-tight. The valve alternately

opens and closes the steam ports and the exhaust port. The diagram shows steam entering the cylinder through the left port and escaping to the exhaust port at the right. The piston is moving towards the right. When it reaches its farthest point in that direction, the valves are reversed, thus forcing the piston back to the opposite end of the cylinder. The outer end of the piston rod is connected with a *cross head*, to which the crank rod (*a*) is also attached. The cross head slides between guides and holds the piston rod firmly in position. The connecting rod joins the cross head to the crank and thus changes the reciprocating motion of the piston into the rotary motion of the shaft. The shaft contains the necessary attachments for operating

the valves and governor, so that the engine is automatic. All that is necessary to start the engine is to open the *throttle valve*, which admits the steam to the steam chest through the pipe (*h*). The movement is regulated by the governor.

Classification. Engines are classified according to the position of the cylinder axis, according to their method of using steam and according to the work for which the engine is designed. A vertical engine has the axis of the cylinder in a vertical position, and the piston has an up and down motion. A horizontal engine has the piston axis in a horizontal position. This is the most common pattern of stationary and locomotive engines. The use of electricity has led to the construction

of a pattern of large engine which combines the vertical and horizontal types, one cylinder being vertical and the other horizontal. Some of these engines have a capacity of 5,000 or 6,000 horse power.

According to their method of using steam, engines are *condensing*, or *low pressure*, and *non-condensing*, or *high pressure*. A *condensing* engine is one in which the exhaust steam is conducted to a condensing chamber, where

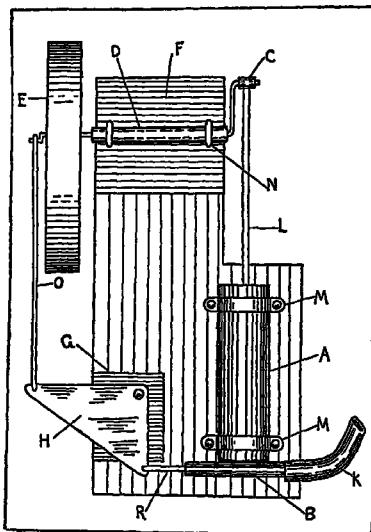
steam to escape into a vacuum. In the high pressure engine the exhaust steam escapes into the air, consequently it must overcome the pressure of air, which, at sea level, is equal to about fifteen pounds to the square inch.

The *compound* engine uses the steam successively in two or more cylinders before it is allowed to escape, while a *simple* engine uses the steam but once. Compound engines, known as *triple expansion* engines, are the most common form of marine engines. They are usually vertical and use the steam three times.

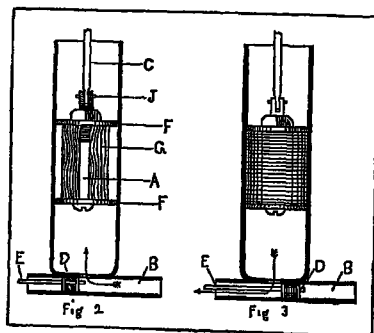
How to Make a Steam Engine. A toy or model engine can easily be made from material found in nearly every home. The cylinder A (Fig. 1) is an old bicycle pump, cut in half. The steam chest B is part of the piston tube of the same pump, the other parts of the tube being used for the bearing C and the bearing D. The fly-wheel E may be any small-sized iron wheel, such as an old sewing-machine wheel or pulley wheel. If the bore in the wheel is too large for the shaft, it may be bushed with a piece of hard wood: to bush the bore cut out a circular piece of wood to fit tightly into the opening; in this piece of wood then cut a circular hole just large enough to admit the shaft. The shaft may be made of heavy steel wire, the size of the hole in the bearing D.

The base should be of wood on which are fastened two blocks F and G, $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch thick, to support the bearing D and the valve crank H, which is made of tin. The hose K leads to the boiler. The clips M are soldered to the cylinder and nailed to the base, and the bearing D is fastened by staples.

The piston is harder to make, because it must fit closely into the cylinder and yet move freely. It may be made of a stove bolt A (Fig. 2), with two washers FF which just fit the cylinder. Around the bolt wind soft string to the width of the washers. Before winding it would be well to saturate the string with thick oil. A slot must be cut in the end of the bolt A to receive the connecting rod C. Solder or a pin as shown in the diagram may be used to hold the rod C in place. The valve D is made of an old bicycle spoke E, with the nut cut in half and the space between filled with string and oiled, just as was done with the stove bolt. Bore a hole in the bottom of the cylinder and another of equal size in the side of the piston



TOY STEAM ENGINE (Fig. 1)



it is condensed, the water being returned to the boiler. This is called the *low-pressure* engine, because the air pump connected with the condensing chamber enables the exhaust

tube in which the valve D works. Then solder these pieces together so that the holes leave a free opening. The valve crank H (Fig. 1), already mentioned, may be cut from a sheet of heavy tin or galvanized iron, and is moved back and forth by a crank on the shaft. This crank must be at right angles to the main shaft.

The boiler may be an old oil, powder, or syrup can with a tube soldered to it. This tube should be connected to the engine by the rubber E of Fig. 1. A good Bunsen burner or small gas stove will furnish enough steam to run the engine at high speed.

Now that we have set up the engine we may study the manner in which it works. The water in the boiler becomes steam when the heat underneath is sufficiently great

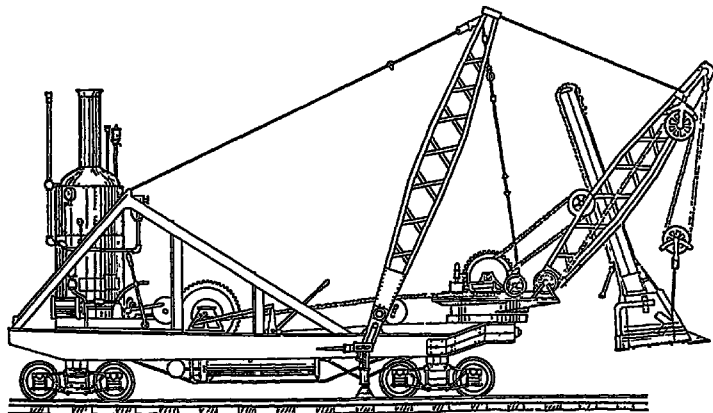
will continue. The operator should be careful that no steam escapes at the joints or connections. When the machine is in good running order it is possible to run a belt over the fly-wheel and let it perform a great variety of work for us.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

Boiler	Locomotive
Eccentric	Traction Engine
Governor	Watt, James

STEAM HAMMER, a hammer operated by steam or electricity, without the aid of other machinery. This contrivance was invented by an Englishman, James Nasmyth, in 1839, and it immediately revolutionized the industries involving heavy forging.

The important parts of a steam hammer are frame, cylinder, piston, piston rod, ham-



STEAM SHOVEL

Through the tube K this steam is let into the cylinder when the valve D (Fig. 2) is at the left of the opening. The pressure of the steam forces the piston upwards, thus turning the crank C and the fly-wheel E. The turn of the fly-wheel works the valve crank H which in turn forces the valve D to the right. When the valve is to the right of the steam inlet the steam will rush out as shown by the arrow in Fig. 3. Now that the cylinder A is empty, the piston will return to the bottom, thus turning the fly-wheel again, changing the position of the small valve B (Fig. 2) so that more steam will enter the cylinder at A. As long as there is enough steam in the boiler this process

mer proper and the anvil. In the early pattern, known as the Nasmyth hammer, the hammer was operated by admitting the steam to the lower end of the cylinder and raising the piston. The steam was then cut off and the hammer fell by its own weight. Later improvements admit the steam alternately at the two ends of the cylinder, the same as in the steam engine, and operate much more rapidly and effectively. The hammer is so perfectly adjusted that it can be made to strike a blow of any required force. Steam hammers are used in large forgings, such as gun forgings, shafts for vessels and other like purposes. Electrically-operated hammers are now coming into more general use, and

can be made as powerful as any of the largest steam hammers

STEAMSHIP. See SHIP.

STEAM SHOVEL, *shuv'el*, an excavating machine for use on land. The huge types used in the excavation of the Panama Canal handled from 4,000 to 5,000 cubic yards of rock or ore daily, but twenty years later shovels electrically operated were so powerful that they were able to move 3,800 yards of earth each hour and could lift a weight of 45 tons.

Method of Operation. The steam shovel including the engine, is mounted on a car, so that it can be moved as required. It consists of a hoisting engine and movable crane, with a scoop, or shovel, so attached to the crane that it can be moved in any direction. The bottom of the shovel is attached by a hinge and held in place by a spring. In use the shovel is lowered to the earth, then pulled forward and slightly downward by a chain that winds over a cylinder. This movement fills it. When filled, it is raised by the crane and swung over the point where it is to be emptied. By pulling a cord the spring holding the bottom in place is released, and the shovel empties itself. The capacity of steam shovels have increased year by year, as noted above, but for ordinary excavation work these shovels have capacities which range from one to five cubic yards.

STEAM TURBINE. See TURBINE, subhead *Steam Turbine*

STEARIC, *ste ar'ik*, ACID, a fatty compound contained in the more solid fats of animals such as mutton suet, and in the fat of cow's milk. It is odorless and tasteless, it crystallizes in pearly scales, and is soluble in alcohol and ether. With paraffin it is used for making candles

STEARIN, the chief ingredient of suet and tallow, or the harder ingredient of animal fats, olein being the softer one. It is prepared for practical use from beef suet and cottonseed oil, and it yields an oil used in the manufacture of butterine. Stearin has a pearly luster and is soft to the touch, but not greasy. It is insoluble in water, but soluble in hot alcohol and ether. When treated with superheated steam, it is separated into stearic acid and glycerine, and when boiled with alkalis the stearic acid combines with the alkali and forms soap and glycerine. When melted, stearin resembles wax.

STEATITE. See SOAPSTONE.

STEDMAN, EDMUND CLARENCE (1833-1908), a prominent American poet and critic, born at Hartford, Conn. He studied at Yale, took up journalism and was war correspondent of the *New York World* during the Civil War. Later he became a stockbroker in New York and was a member of the Stock Exchange. He contributed to the more important magazines and published his first volume of verse in 1860. His critical work, *Victorian Poets*, appeared in 1875 and has gone through many editions; the *Poets of America* appeared in 1886. Among his volumes of verse are *Poems, Lyrical and Idyllic; Hawthorne and Other Poems; Alice of Monmouth*, and *A Diamond Wedding*.

STEEL, the refined metal that gives strength and stability to the industries of the world, as gold determines the standard of value. It is a variety of iron containing less carbon than cast iron and more than wrought iron. Steel is stronger than iron, can be tempered to any degree of hardness, bent into any desirable shape, and cast in molds. It is the world's most valuable metal and enters into the manufacture of so many things upon which we depend for our commerce and comfort that were its supply suddenly to cease, the industries of the world would have to be reorganized.

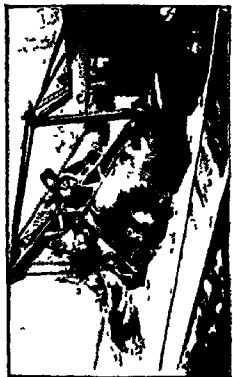
In the article IRON the various iron ores are named and the methods of their production and transportation are described. This article treats of the reduction of these ores, their transformation into steel and the uses made of this valuable commodity.

Smelting the Ore. The iron and steel of commerce contain small quantities of carbon, manganese, phosphorus and sulphur, and the ores contain these substances in a much larger proportion, together with sand and other minerals, all of which must be separated from the metal. This is done through the process of smelting, which is carried on in a blast furnace.

The Blast Furnace. The blast furnace is so named because a blast of hot air is employed in producing the high temperature (600° to 900° F.) required in reducing the ore. A blast furnace is usually a tall cylindrical structure, and consists of the following parts: The stack, A; the hoes, B, which are the conical part below the stack; the hearth, H, the charging hopper, C, and the tuyeres, I.



1



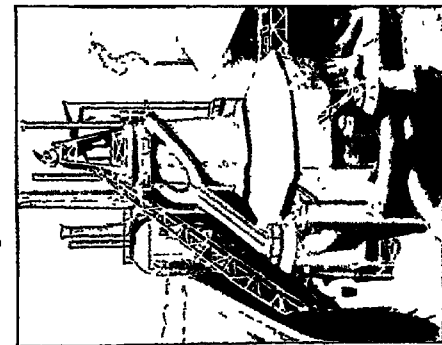
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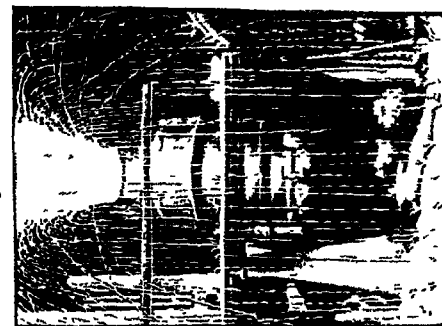
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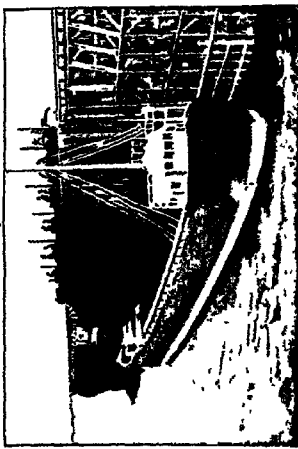
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IRON AND STEEL

- 1, Iron Mine 2, Steam Shovel 3, Ore Train 4, Rescuer Converter 5, Furnace 6, Bessemer Converter 7, Incots

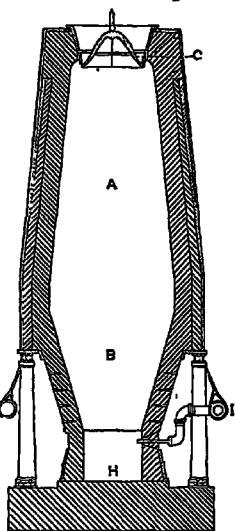


TURNING DULL IRON ORE INTO GLISTENING STEEL

Above: a portion of a steel mill at night, its fires, always burning, cast a ruddy glow over the sky. Below: molten metal ready to be poured.



The exterior consists of massive masonry of stone, brick or cement, the body part being lined with two shells of fire bricks, separated by a thin space to allow for expansion. This space is generally filled with sand, ground fire-clay or the like, to hinder the radiation of heat to the outside. When the body rises in the form of a perpendicular cylinder, it is called the barrel. The cone or barrel is sometimes clasped round on the outside by numerous strong iron hoops, or is cased with iron plates fastened



BLAST FURNACE

to the masonry by iron bolts. The boshes are lined with firebrick or firestone, and the hearth is built with large blocks of stone which will resist the heat. A gallery is built around the top, and to this, material for charging the furnace is hoisted by an elevator. The top is closed by a bell-and-cone arrangement which is opened and shut at pleasure by hydraulic or other machinery. The height of furnaces varies from fifty to eighty feet, and in some cases to upward of one hundred feet, and the greatest width is in most instances not more than one-third of the height.

Near the furnace are tall cylindrical structures, usually four in number, called *stoves*. Their interior is filled with a checkerwork of brick, which is heated to a high temperature by burning the gas generated in smelting the ore. When this checkerwork in one stove is heated to its highest temperature, the heat is turned to another and the blast of air is forced through the hot stove before it is driven into the furnace. By this means the temperature required to smelt the ore is maintained with the smallest possible consumption of fuel.

The Charge A charge for the furnace consists of crushed ore, crushed coke and crushed limestone, mixed in such proportions as to secure the largest amount of metal from the ore at the lowest temperature that will gain this result. The limestone acts as a flux, combining with the sand and other minerals and setting the iron free. The charging of the furnace continues at frequent intervals day and night, for when a blast furnace is started it continues in operation until repairs are necessary. The charges are constantly passing downward and undergoing a change as they come nearer the hotter parts of the furnace. Toward the lower part the earthy matter of the ore unites with the limestone and forms a slag, which finally escapes at an opening below the tuyeres, and the molten metal drops down and fills the lower part, to be drawn off at stated periods. This is done usually twice in twenty-four hours, by means of a round hole called a tap. The furnace is constantly kept filled to within about two feet of the top. (See illustration 5 in the color plate.) The molten metal may be run into channels in sand and cast into bars, forming *pig iron* or *pig*, or it may be poured into a ladle and taken to another furnace, for changing the iron to steel before it cools. *Wrought iron* is made by remelting and purifying pig iron. It is soft, tough and flexible. Pig iron contains too much carbon, and wrought iron contains too little, to form steel.

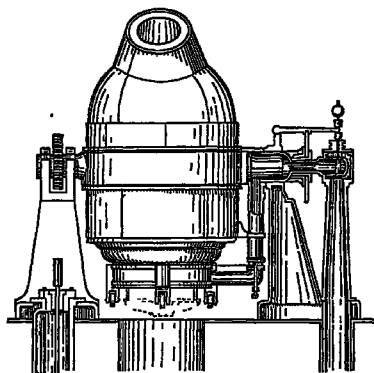
Varieties of Steel. There are a number of varieties of steel, each named from the method employed in its manufacture.

Crucible Steel This variety is made by the oldest process by which steel is manufactured from iron. Wrought iron bars are laid between layers of charcoal in iron retorts that are lined with fire brick. The air is excluded, and the retorts are placed in a furnace and heated to a yellow heat, the temperature being maintained six or eight days, according to the grade of steel desired. The process is known as *cementation*, and from the appearance of the bars, which, when taken from the retorts, are covered with blisters, this is sometimes called *blisters steel*. A small quantity of carbon is added to the wrought iron during the process, thus converting it into steel. With the best quality of wrought iron, this process produces the highest grade of steel. Since the outside of the bars absorb more carbon than the interior, the bars are

usually melted in a crucible and cast in molds or ingots which are of uniform quality. These ingots form the *cast steel* of commerce, from which steel tools and implements of the highest grade are made.

The *electric furnace*, in which the heat is produced by electricity, is now rapidly supplanting the crucible process in making high-grade steel.

Bessemer Steel. This variety of steel takes its name from Sir Henry Bessemer of England, the inventor of the process of its manufacture. In principle it is directly the reverse of the cementation process, which produces steel by burning the carbon into



BESSEMER CONVERTER

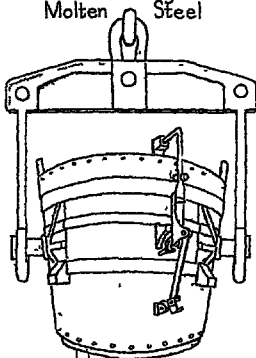
wrought iron. Bessemer conceived the idea of making steel by burning carbon out of cast iron, which contains too large a proportion. The furnace in which this is done is known as the *converter*. It is an egg-shaped iron vessel, about fifteen feet high and eight feet in diameter, narrowing at the top to an opening about eighteen inches in diameter. The furnace is lined with fire brick and mounted on trunnions, so it can be tilted to a horizontal position by a hydraulic piston. In most patterns the top is curved, so as to bring the opening to one side. The bottom contains a number of tuyeres, each perforated with holes half an inch in diameter. The tuyeres are connected with an air chamber, which is supplied with air through one of the trunnions, connected by pipes with a powerful blowing machine. The converter is charged directly from the blast furnace or from iron that is melted in a separate furnace, called the *cupola*. In being charged,

the converter is tipped upon its side. As it resumes an upright position, the blast is automatically turned on, and air is forced through the molten metal with a pressure varying from fifteen to twenty-five pounds to the square inch. This burns out the silicon and carbon and produces such violent boiling of the metal as to cause the converter and its foundations to vibrate perceptibly. When the silicon and carbon have been consumed, the blast is shut off, the converter is again tilted upon its side and a small quantity of *spiegeleisen*, an alloy of highly carbonized iron and manganese, is added. After this has been thoroughly mixed with the metal, the charge is poured into ladles, from which it is run into casting molds. The process of converting the charge into steel requires from eight to twenty minutes, and the time is determined by the furnace man, who is able to tell by the color of the flame at the mouth of the converter when the process is completed. As soon as the ingots have cooled enough to retain their form, the mold is taken off and the ingot is moved to the *soaking-pot*, which is another furnace heated by gas. Here the ingots remain until they acquire a uniform temperature and solidity, when they are ready for the *rolling-mill*. (See illustrations 6 and 7 in the color plate.)

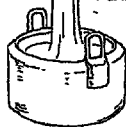
Open-Hearth Steel. Open-hearth steel is that made in a furnace constructed on the same plan as that used in making wrought iron. The open-hearth furnace is charged with molten pig iron, scrap steel, iron ore and a small quantity of limestone or fluor-spar. The heat is produced by gas which burns over the charge. The process requires from six to twelve hours. The steel is poured into molds, then treated the same as that produced by the Bessemer process. The chief advantages of the open-hearth process are the opportunity of using scraps and the large quantity of metal that can be treated at one time, from seventy to a hundred tons of steel being made at a heat in the largest furnaces. About three-fourths of the steel produced in the United States is made by the open-hearth process.

Alloys of Steel. A number of other metals when united with steel in small proportions greatly improve its quality for specific purposes. A small quantity of mnickel hardens the metal, and *nickel steel* is used in making armor plate for warships, and for steel used in large bridges. *Vanadium steel*

Open Hearth Process
Ladle Containing 100 Tons
Molten Steel



Steel Rails
Locomotive
Reaper
Printing Press
Loom
Telescope
Bridge
Office Building
Cannon
Tools
Ships
Watch Springs
Needles
Pens,



- Mould



One ton of Steel
(in Ingots)
worth \$40.00
can be

rolled out into
16,000 miles
watch hairsprings
worth
\$124,000,000.00



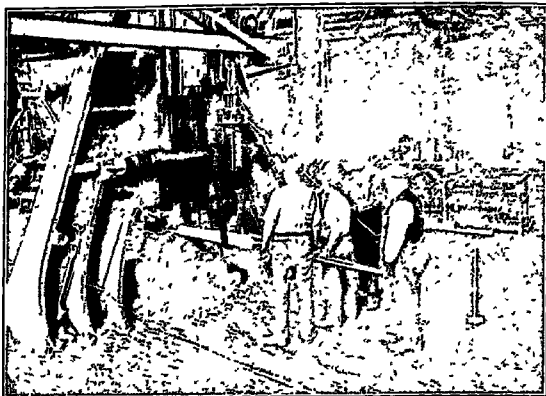
Open hearth furnaces and huge "ladle" for taking the molten steel to the moulds. The great nations are those that have a large store of iron and use it. Present civilization depends upon steel.



In the rolling mill. Note the path for hot rails from one set of rolls to another. When steel is heated it is rather soft, and may be hammered into any shape, planed, sawed, punched or tied in a knot.

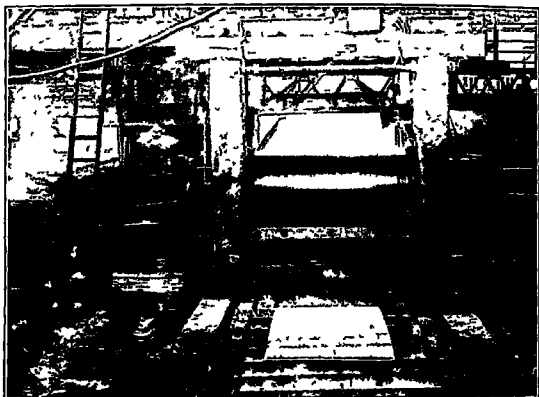


A bar of white hot steel passing through the shearing machine. As easily as you cut a cheese this machine clips off sections of steel six inches thick.



A drop hammer making a steel forging. Piston rods for engines, propeller shafts for an ocean liner, reinforcing columns for a lighthouse, all have undergone this process. For steel and men alike, the blows of life produce strength to withstand the storms.

This steel plate has just come through the rolls. The armor of a battleship, parts of machines, the framework of a great bridge, as well as the needle that sews up a boy's torn clothes, all start as a steel ingot and are rolled down and wrought into their final form.



What boy has not enjoyed making pins or iron filings jump to a magnet? He would open his eyes with wonder to see this great magnet pick up a rail, a bar, or a slab of steel, and carry it wherever desired, as easily as we carry an umbrella — and with much less danger of losing it. Won't some genius invent a magnet to prevent a man's forgetting his umbrella or to mail his wife's letters!

is extensively used in making automobiles, because of its power to resist shocks; *tungsten steel* is used in the manufacture of tools. The addition of from seven to fifteen per cent of manganese makes the metal very tough and hard, and *manganese steel* is used for rock crushers and other machines where great strength is required. Most of the railroad rails are of manganese steel.

Uses of Steel. The uses of steel are so numerous that only a few can be given in this article. Steel has replaced iron in almost everything in the line of construction. The frame of the city skyscraper is steel. We have steel ships, steel locomotives and cars that move on steel rails. Nails are made of steel wire, and our linen is sewed with the finest steel needles. The place of steel in the World War is aptly summarized in the following words:

In the great World War nations opposed each other in terms of steel. The tiny needle of steel carried on the endless work of small sewing, the instrument of steel served the surgeon, vessels of steel transported troops and provisions and policed the sea, the steel helmet protected the man in the trenches, and the shrieking steel shell carried destruction to the enemy. It has been a War of Steel. And, in the work of reconstructing the affairs of man, steel will play a ruling part. Where steel has destroyed, steel will renew. Steel will extend our roads of transportation and form vast bridges. Steel will plow the shell-torn fields and reopen the soil for seed. Steel will support the construction of new buildings and will supply machines and instruments for renewed manufacturing activities. Steel will deliver and protect the necessary supplies of man.

Production. The United States is the leading country of the world in the production of iron and steel (see IRON). Before the outbreak of the World War the other countries in order of their importance were Germany, the United Kingdom, France and Russia. The output of crude steel in the United States in 1919 had reached a potential total of 49,000,000 tons; in 1928, 63,000,000 tons.

STEELYARD, in mechanics, a balance, or weighing machine, consisting of a lever of unequal arms. The most common kind, often called the Roman balance, is a lever of the first class (see LEVER). One may find the weight of an object by suspending it from the end of the shorter arm, or placing it in a scale-dish suspended from that arm, and sliding a balance weight, whose weight is known, along the longer arm, until the in-

strument remains in equilibrium in a horizontal position; the weight of the substance attached to the short arm of the lever is ascertained by observing the position of the movable balance-weight, with respect to a graduated scale marked upon the long arm of the steelyard. A ring or hook is attached to the fulcrum, so that the instrument may be conveniently hung upon a fixed support.

STEEN, *stayn*, JAN (1626-1679), a celebrated Dutch painter, born at Leyden. Few facts of his life are known. One of these is that he worked at Haarlem from 1661 to 1669, the most productive period of his career. His works, which number about 500, are remarkable for draughtsmanship, clear, transparent color and keen humor. Steen delighted especially in scenes of Dutch life, and he ranks with Hogarth as a master of pictorial satire. No other Dutch painter save Rembrandt surpasses him in variety of subject, accuracy of treatment and in dramatic gifts. Fine examples of his work are *Eve of Saint Nicholas*, *The Rustic Wedding* (both at Amsterdam), *The Menagerie* (The Hague) and *The Music Master* (London National Gallery). Representative canvases are owned by the Metropolitan Museum, New York.

STEFANSSON, *st'fahns sohn*, VILHJALMUR (1879-), a Scandinavian explorer, who, as head of an expedition, discovered in 1915 a hitherto unknown island in the Arctic Ocean. The expedition was under the auspices of the American Museum of Natural History and the National Geographic Society (U S), and was financed by the Canadian government. Stefansson sailed from Victoria, B. C., in June, 1913; and the following spring, although the largest of his ships had been lost, he proceeded northeastward from Alaska. A feature of his trip was a three months' journey by sledge across floating ice. In February, 1915, he left Cape Kelleth, Banks Land, and proceeding north discovered, on June 18, near the 78th parallel, a mountainous island about a hundred miles long. He made subsequent surveys of importance in Arctic regions. See NORTH POLAR EXPLORATION.

STEFFENS, LINCOLN (1866-1936), an American writer and lecturer. He was born in San Francisco, was graduated from the University of California and later studied at Berlin, Heidelberg, Leipzig and Paris. He served as reporter and editor on New York papers and afterwards became editor succes-

sively of *McClure's Magazine*, *The American Magazine* and *Everybody's Magazine*. Many of his writings are in book form.

Steffens became best known for his studies concerning the government of great cities; unerringly from an unbiased point of view he pointed out their weaknesses, and aroused much comment. Among his books are *The Shame of the Cities*, *The Struggle for Self-Government*, *Upbuilders*, *The Least of These*, and *Moses in Red*.

STEINMETZ, CHARLES PROTEUS (1865-1923), one of the greatest electrical experts of America. He was referred to as "the hunchback who played with thunderbolts". Born in Breslau, Germany, he was educated there, and at Berlin, and at Zurich, Switzerland. As a young man he came to America and in 1893 joined the engineering department of the General Electric Company in Schenectady, where he remained until he died. He not only made valuable contributions to the advance of electrical science, but he was also a philosophical writer who could make scientific subject plain to the lay reader. He was honored by colleges and many learned societies.

STEMS, the parts of plants which support leaves. Though stems in some plants are all underground, in most cases they serve to keep the leaves and flowers of plants in the sunlight, they always form channels by which the liquids in circulation can reach the leaves from the roots. The stems of some plants live but one year, others live two years, and still others may live on indefinitely from year to year. The methods of growth vary with the species, sometimes being directly upward from a terminal bud, making a cylindrical, upright tube; sometimes branching regularly, but still standing upright. Other stems are weak and rise by climbing only, either by their rootlets, or tendrils, or by twining round and round some slender support. The tuber of the potato or the root-stock of Solomon's seal are examples of underground stems. Other condensed forms are found above ground, as may be seen in the peculiar tips that the cactus family exhibits. See **BOTANY**; **LEAVES**.

STENCIL, *sten'sil*, a thin sheet of metal, cardboard, or other material with letters or designs cut in it. Stencils are much used in marking shipping boxes, in cases where the same marking is repeatedly used. The stencil is laid flat on the box and is painted

over with a brush saturated with ink. The ink touches the box only through the stencil openings. Stencils are sometimes used in transferring designs to walls.

STENOGRAPHY. See **SHORTHAND**.

STEPHEN, *ste'ven*, (about 1097-1154), king of England, son of Stephen, count of Blois, and Adela, a daughter of William the Conqueror. His uncle, Henry I, gave him the earldom of Montaigne, in Normandy, and large estates in England, in return for which he took the oath to secure the succession to Henry's daughter, Matilda. But when his uncle died, in 1135, he hastened from France to England, laid claim to the crown for himself and was crowned in London. In 1139 Matilda landed in England with her half-brother, the earl of Gloucester, and a civil war ensued, in which Stephen was taken prisoner and Matilda was acknowledged queen. The conduct of the new sovereign, however, excited an insurrection against her government, and she was shut up in Winchester Castle, while the earl of Gloucester was taken prisoner. Stephen was exchanged for the earl, and the war was renewed. When Matilda retired to Normandy, the contest was taken up by her son Henry. Finally the struggle was brought to an end in 1153 by the Treaty of Wallingford, in which it was agreed that Stephen should reign until his death, and that he should be succeeded by Henry.

STEPHENS, ALEXANDER HAMILTON (1812-1883), an American statesman, born near Crawfordsville, Ga. He spent his childhood amid the greatest poverty, received his education at Franklin College, through the assistance of a charitable organization, and in 1834 was admitted to the bar. He later repaid his helpers with interest.

Stephens was elected to the Georgia legislature in 1836 and to Congress in 1843, where he at once assumed prominence as a fearless advocate of the rights of the South, though at the same time a lover of the Union. In 1860 he opposed secession, not because he believed it wrong in principle, but because he deemed it inexpedient at the time. At the Georgia session convention he delivered a great speech for the Union, but when Georgia seceded he remained loyal to the state and became Vice-President of the Confederacy. He headed the Confederate peace commission at Hampton Roads, in February, 1865. At the close of the war he was im-

prisoned five months at Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor. In 1866 he was elected to the United States Senate, but was not allowed to take his seat. He entered Congress, however, in 1873, and remained there until 1882, when he was chosen governor of his state. In every position in which he was placed Stephens acted with the highest of motives and with deep conviction. His career constantly exemplified rare moral courage and devotion to principle.

STEPHENSON, *ste'ven son*, **GEORGE** (1781-1849), an English engineer and inventor, who built the first railway locomotive. While an engine-wright at Killingworth, he constructed a locomotive for the tramways and succeeded in inducing the projectors of the Stockton & Darlington railway to adopt it. The result was that in 1825 the first railway was built, over which passengers and freight were borne by locomotives. Stephenson was then employed to construct the Liverpool & Manchester railway, the directors of which accepted his locomotive, called the *Rocket*, which at the trial trip in 1825 ran twenty-nine miles in an hour, a high rate of speed in that day. Stephenson was afterward identified with numerous railway undertakings throughout England, and he invented a miner's safety lamp. See **LOCOMOTIVE**.



GEORGE
STEPHENSON

STEPHENSON, **ROBERT** (1803-1859), an English engineer, born at Wallington Quay, England, the son of George Stephenson. He received an excellent technical education and began his active career as his father's assistant in railroad surveying. He then took charge of his father's factory at Newcastle and greatly aided him in improving the locomotive. His services as a railway civil engineer were in great demand, and in time he became celebrated as the builder of great bridges. He was the inventor of the tubular bridge, the most celebrated of these bridges are the Britannia Bridge over the Menai Straits, the Conway Bridge and the first Victoria Bridge across the Saint Lawrence at Montreal. This last was replaced by a steel

truss bridge in 1898. See **BRIDGES**, subhead *Tubular Bridges*.

STEFFES, *steps*, the vast treeless plains extending from the River Dnieper eastward across Southern Russia and embracing Southwestern Siberia. During most of the year they are dry and barren, but after the spring rains they are for a short time covered with verdure and furnish pasturage for the flocks and herds of wandering Tartar tribes. See **PLAINS**.

STEREOPTICON. See **MAGIC LANTERN**. **STEREOSCOPE**, an optical apparatus which enables one to look at the same time upon two photographic pictures, nearly the same, but taken under a slight difference of angular view, so that each eye looks upon one picture only. The effect is similar to that produced by natural vision. The two lenses are mounted in a frame having a handle and a bar extending outward. To this bar is attached a rack for holding the card on which the duplicate photographs are printed. A reflecting form of stereoscope was invented by Wheatstone in 1838. Subsequently Brewster invented the refracting stereoscope, based on the refractive properties of the halves of double-convex lenses. This is the one which was so popular a few years ago.

STEREOTYPING, *ster'e o type ing*, the process of impressing pages of type or of engraving in type metal and of making stereotype plate.

The type is set and locked in the form, then sent to the foundry, where the face is brushed clean with a soft brush dipped in oil. A thick, soft paper, especially prepared for the purpose, is then pressed down upon the type with a heavy iron roller. The face of the type is forced into the paper, so as to make a perfect mold of the page; this mold is called a *matrix*. After drying, the matrix is taken from the type and placed in a casting box. Melted type metal is then poured over it, making a plate which is a perfect copy of the type. The stereotype plates made for ordinary printing presses are flat. Those made for the presses used in large newspaper establishments are in the form of half-cylinders.

Several casts can be made from the same matrix. In all large cities there are firms which specialize in supplying country papers with plates for printing a portion of their paper. The time consumed in making a stereotype plate is about ten minutes. Since such

plates are inexpensive and are quickly made, they are especially valuable for printing daily papers and cheap editions of books. For higher grade of work the electrotype has displaced the stereotype.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information
Electrotyping Printing
Newspaper Printing Press

STERNE, sturn, LAURENCE (1713-1768), an English author who made distinct contributions to the development of the English novel. After his graduation from Cambridge in 1736 he was ordained and went at once to a pastorate in Yorkshire. There he remained twenty years, devoting himself to reading and writing in his leisure moments. In 1759 appeared the first two volumes of his longest work, *Tristram Shandy*, which, by their humor, whimsicality and happy audacity of tone and treatment, gained instant popularity. The publication of this work was continued, the ninth and last volume appearing in 1767, and Sterne found himself exceedingly popular in London, whither he had moved. His other writings are *A Sentimental Journey Through France and Italy* (1768) and a number of sermons, besides letters published after his death. Though disfigured in places by the sort of vulgarity which was characteristic of the age, Sterne's *Tristram Shandy* and *Sentimental Journey*, especially the former, contain some of the finest humor in English literature.

STETHOSCOPE, an instrument by means of which the sounds of the heart and lungs are distinctly heard and the condition of these organs is ascertained. The most improved apparatus consists of a tube, one end of which flares like a bell; the other is attached to a forked tube with two earpieces. The bell is held against the chest or over the heart of the patient, while the physician listens with the aid of the earpieces.

STETTIN, stet teen', GERMANY, capital of the Prussian province of Pomerania, on both sides of the Oder and about eighty miles northeast of Berlin. It is one of the principal ports of Germany and its ship-building yards are among the largest in the world. It is the most important manufacturing center in the province. The chief mill products are chemicals, machinery, clothing and sugar. The trade is principally in fish, petroleum, corn, wood and wine. Among the objects of interest are the Municipal Museum, the town hall, the former

Ducal Palace and the churches of Saint Peter and Saint James. Population, 1933, 269,557.

STEBEN, stu'ben or stor'ben, FREDERICH WILHELM AUGUST, Baron von (1730-1794), a Prussian general, who fought in the American Revolution. He was born in the fortress at Magdeburg and at the age of fourteen entered the Prussian army. In 1758 he was made adjutant-general, and he fought with distinction during the Seven Years' War, becoming at its close grand marshal to the prince of Hohenzollern-Hechingen. In 1777, at the solicitation of Benjamin Franklin, he went to America and offered his services to Congress. He immediately was dispatched to Valley Forge, where, during the winter, he drilled the army in military tactics, in which he had received special instruction from Frederick the Great. He was made inspector-general and instituted many important reforms. He fought at the Battle of Monmouth, was a member of the André court martial, put an end to the marauding invasions of Benedict Arnold in Virginia and took a prominent part in the siege of Yorktown. At the close of the war he was granted large tracts of land by several states and a pension of \$2,400 by Congress; and he spent the remainder of his life in America.

STEBENVILLE, stu'ben vil, OHIO, the county seat of Jefferson County, forty-three miles southwest of Pittsburgh, Pa., on the Ohio River and on the Pennsylvania, the Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Chicago & Saint Louis and the Wheeling & Lake Erie railroads. The city is in a section having deposits of coal, gas and petroleum, and it has extensive manufactures of iron, steel, paper, electric light bulbs, glass and pottery. Some important features are a city hall, a courthouse, a Carnegie Library, Gill Hospital, a Y. M. C. A. building and Stanton and Altamont parks. The town was laid out in 1798, on the site of a fort named in honor of Baron Steuben. It was chartered as a city in 1851. Population, 1920, 28,508, in 1930, 35,422, a gain of 24 per cent.

STEVENS, THADDEUS (1792-1868), an American statesman, born at Danville, Vt. He graduated at Dartmouth College, taught school and was admitted to the bar, practicing at Gettysburg and Lancaster, Pa. He was elected to the legislature as a Whig in 1833, where he served with rare energy and ability, and was elected to Congress in 1849.

There he was a leader of the anti-slavery forces for two terms and again in 1859. As one of the Republican leaders in Congress he was the chief advocate of emancipation and negro suffrage and of the radical reconstruction measures, and he led the impeachment of President Johnson. Though bitter and sarcastic in debate, he was famous for his indiscriminating charities.

STEVENSON, ADLAI EWING (1835-1914), an American statesman, Vice-President of the United States from 1893 to 1897. He was born in Christian County, Ky., and was educated in the common schools there and at Center College, Danville, Ky. In 1852 his parents moved to Illinois, where he was admitted to the bar five years later. In 1874 he was elected a member of Congress from Illinois by the Democratic party, and in 1885 was appointed first assistant Postmaster-General. At the conclusion of his term as Vice-President he was appointed a member of the commission to try to secure international bimetalism. He was nominated for Vice-President in 1900, on the ticket with Bryan, but was defeated.

STEVENSON, ROBERT (1772-1850), a Scotch engineer, born at Glasgow. His first work of importance was the erection of a lighthouse on Little Cumbrae. He was for forty-seven years inspector of lighthouses, and during that time he built twenty-three lighthouses on the Scottish coast, the most colossal of these undertakings being the construction of the lighthouse on the submarine Bell Rock. Stevenson introduced many improvements in the construction of bridges, canals, harbors and railways and invented the system of *intermittent and flashing lights*. See **LIGHTHOUSE**.

STEVENSON, ROBERT LOUIS BALFOUR (1850-1894), a Scottish poet, essayist and writer of fiction, born in Edinburgh. He studied law and was admitted to the Scottish bar, but found his true calling in literature. A leisurely journey through France and Belgium by canoe supplied material for *An Inland Voyage* (1878), and a walking tour in southern France was described in the following year in *Travels with a Donkey*. At this time were published, too, in various periodicals, the stories and essays, some of them among his best, which were afterward collected as the *New Arabian Nights*, *Virginibus Puerisque* and *Familiar Studies of Men and Books*.

Learning in 1879 of the severe illness of Mrs. Osbourne, whom he had met some years previously, he decided to go to California, her home. He made the voyage in the steerage of an emigrant ship, and finished the journey across the continent in an immigrant train. These experiences he described in *The Amateur Emigrant* and *Across the Plains*. In 1880 he married Mrs. Osbourne.

During the next ten years his quest for health took him to various places, and in 1890 he settled permanently in Samoa, where he soon became a commanding figure among the natives. Meanwhile he had published *Treasure Island*, a story of stirring adventures which met with immediate success, *Prince Otto*, a romance; *Doctor Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*, an account in story form of the dual personality which exists in every man, *Kidnapped*, *The Master of Ballantrae*; *A Child's Garden of Verses* and *Underwoods*, a second volume of verse, and the *Merry Men and Other Tales*. During his years in Samoa he wrote *David Balfour*, which is a sequel to *Kidnapped*, and *Saint Ives*, and he began *Weir of Hermiston*, which, although unfinished at his death, is by many critics regarded as his greatest work.

Stevenson's uncomplaining spirit, his cheerfulness and diligence in the face of disadvantages so great that to a less courageous man they might have seemed overwhelming, make him one of the most attractive of literary personalities. As a story-teller he rivals Scott, while his exquisite style places him in the front rank of the writers of his time.

STEVENS POINT, Wis., the county seat of Portage County, 100 miles north of Madison, on the Wisconsin River and on the Minneapolis, Saint Paul & Sault Ste. Marie and the Green Bay & Western railroads. The city is an important trade center for an extensive region and lies just north of the great potato-producing district. There is good water power, and more than one hundred industrial establishments, which include saw mills, foundries, knitting works and manufacturing of furniture, paper, fishing flies, an



ROBERT LOUIS
STEVENSON

other articles, are located here. The city has a Carnegie Library and is the seat of one of the state normal schools. The place was settled in 1836. Population, 1920, 11,371; in 1930, 13,623.

STIBNITE, or **ANTIMONY GLANCE**, is ore consisting of antimony and sulphur. The color is lead-gray or blackish, and the mineral is very brittle. This ore is the source of most of the antimony of commerce.

STICKLEBACK, the popular name for certain small fishes, so called because of their dorsal spines. These fishes are found in both salt and fresh waters, are very active and voracious and live upon aquatic insects and worms. The sticklebacks are among the very few fishes which build nests for their young. The nest is composed of straw, sticks and similar materials, and is shaped like a muff. In it the eggs, yellow in color and about the size of poppy seeds, are deposited. The male guards the nest until several days after the eggs are hatched. The largest sticklebacks attain a length of seven inches.

STIKINE, *stik een'*, **RIVER**, a small river in Western Canada which furnishes water communication between Northern British Columbia and the Pacific. From the Cassiar Mountains, in Northern British Columbia, where it rises, it flows northward, then westward and southward, and after crossing the narrow southern strip of Alaska, enters the Pacific, traversing a distance of 335 miles and draining an area of 20,000 square miles. It is navigable for 170 miles.

STILLWATER, **MINN.**, the county seat of Washington County, eighteen miles northeast of Saint Paul, on the Saint Croix River and on the Northern Pacific, the Chicago & North Western and the Chicago, Milwaukee & Saint Paul railroads. It has a beautiful location near the Dalles, which extend about thirty miles to the north along the river. The Minnesota state prison is located here, and the municipality contains a Carnegie library, a fine city hall, two convents and a city hospital. It is the industrial center of a large lumber region. The industrial establishments include lumber mills, grain elevators, flour and feed mills, foundries and machine shops and manufactories of wagons, boats, farm implements, shoes and other articles. Stillwater was settled in 1843, was incorporated as a village in 1848 and chartered as a city in 1854. Population, 1920, 7,735; in 1930, 7,173.

STILT, a plover, with exceedingly long, slender legs, which fast gives it its common name. It lives in fresh and salt marshes and feeds on insects. Few birds have greater power of flight, either in distance or rapidity. The stilt is always a peculiar-looking bird, whether walking as if on stilts or flying, with its long legs awkwardly stretched out behind it. There is only one North American species, the *black-necked stilt*, of the temperate regions. It is about fifteen inches



STILT

long, is white beneath and black above, with bright-red legs. The nest is a depression in the ground, lined with grasses.

STIMSON, **HENRY LEWIS** (1867-), an American administrator, twice a Cabinet member, a native of New York City, and a graduate of Yale (1888). He was admitted to the bar in 1891, and for a term was a United States district attorney. He was defeated for the governorship of New York in 1910, was Secretary of War in the Taft Cabinet, then was appointed governor-general of the Philippine Islands. Becoming Secretary of State under President Hoover, he protested unsuccessfully through diplomatic action Japan's designs on China.

STING RAY, a group of fishes characterized by a long, whiplike tail equipped with one or more sharp spines near its base. This spine, or "sting," is not poisonous, but it inflicts a painful wound. There are about fifty species of these rays. All have flat disk-shaped bodies and some are from ten to twelve feet in diameter. They inhabit warm waters and have been found in tropical South American rivers.

STOAT. See **ERMINE**.

STOCK. Stock is that which represents the capital of a corporation. It should be understood in this article that, in speaking of stock, only the stock of corporations is meant. For instance, the capital stock of a certain corporation is \$30,000,000; in other words, that sum of money is invested, or is supposed to be invested, in that company. The people whose money makes up this total own *shares*, of a par value of \$100 each, or other

smaller sum To show that an investor owns shares he receives a *certificate*, which indicates the number of shares issued to him and usually the par or face value of each share. Each certificate is numbered, and the complete record of the certificate is kept on the company's books. The company, out of its profits, pays *dividends* to its stockholders, but before dividends are paid the directors must *declare* or vote the dividends. Thus it is customary to say that the "directors declared the regular semi-annual dividend of three per cent," or whatever it may be Dividends are usually declared twice a year, but monthly, quarterly or annual payments are also common

Common and Preferred Stock There are two principal kinds of stock, *common* and *preferred* The preferred stock receives dividends at a fixed rate, and this rate must be paid before the common stock receives any dividends Owners of preferred stock, however, usually are not allowed to vote at the meetings of the corporation. In other words, the preferred stock is like a loan If the preferred stock is *cumulative* it shares in the profits of the business over and above the amount needed to pay equal dividends to both common and preferred stockholders. *Participating* preferred stock entitles the owner to vote at all meetings and gives him the same rights as a holder of common stock A *proxy* is a form of power of attorney by which one stockholder authorizes another to act for him Ownership of a majority of the common stock is necessary to control the affairs of the company. A stockholder is entitled to as many votes as he has shares

Market Prices. Stock is usually issued at a *nominal*, or *par*, value The usual par value of a share is \$100, but shares of a par value of \$1, \$5, \$10, \$25 and \$50 are not rare Par value is like the words on a coin which say it is worth a certain amount of money Market value or price is determined by the earning power of a company For example, the common stock of a certain company pays 5 per cent dividends a year This is a fair return on the investment, the normal rate of interest on money loans being about six per cent In consequence, the common stock fluctuates in market price from a little below par to a little above If, however, the company's business warranted dividends of 10 per cent a year, the market price would jump to about \$175 or \$200 a share The propor-

tionate return on such an investment would be the same as in the first case, the people to profit by the rise in price would be those who had paid the low price and were now receiving the high rate of interest In some states in recent years stocks are issued without a par value, the market value alone indicating the standing of the issue.

Purchasers of stock must bear in mind the difference between investment and speculation A man may be willing to accept a low return on his money if he knows that the principal is safe, but if there is any danger that he will lose his principal, he demands a high interest This fact explains why the stock of mining companies, for example, often pays as high as twenty or thirty per cent (or even more) interest on the amount invested On the other hand, if the business is of a conservative nature, large profits will result in a rise in the market price of the stock

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Broker Corporation Stock Exchange

STOCK EXCHANGE, an organization of business men engaged chiefly in buying and selling stocks and bonds The name is also applied to the building where these financial operations are carried on. The first stock exchange was organized at London in 1801 In the early years of the stock exchange a member might trade there any sort of security he wanted to handle The good stock and the bad had equal chances of getting the purchaser's attention Ultimately this defect was recognized, a sort of censorship was instituted, and a list was made of all securities which might be exchanged To-day a company which wishes to market its stock on the exchange must prepare for the board of control a financial statement and submit it to the exchange If the board is satisfied as to its value, the stock is placed on its list of recognized securities If it is rejected it must be sold on the "curb," that is, the street, if sold at all Under normal conditions the exchange as a body does not attempt to control prices and is not responsible for fluctuations The number of those who are constantly trying to boost prices and of those who are trying to lower them is about equally divided, and equilibrium is thereby maintained

Membership in stock exchanges is limited to the number of those who can conduct the

business to be done. The cost of a seat fluctuates according to financial conditions. In 1885 the price of a seat on the New York Stock Exchange ranged from \$20,000 to \$30,000; in 1920, from \$85,000 to \$115,000; during the boom market of 1929 the prices ranged from \$500,000 to \$625,000. Later, prices dropped to much lower levels. In normal times memberships on most exchanges is from \$5,000 to \$10,000. See SECURITIES AND EXCHANGE COMMISSION.

STOCKHOLM, SWEDEN, the capitol and chief city of the country, is beautifully situated on the east end of Lake Malar and a number of islands and peninsulas which are separated by fjords and surrounded by forests. Because of this feature Stockholm has been called the "Venice of the North." The older portions of the city have narrow streets, but the newer parts are laid out on modern plans and contain numerous squares, which are ornamented with monuments and statuary. There are also a number of beautiful parks about the city. The most important structure is the royal palace. Other buildings of importance are the customhouse, the exchange bank, the townhall, the parliament house and the national library, national museum and academy of arts and sciences. Among the churches worthy of mention are the Stor Kyrka; the Riddarholms Kyrka, which is the burial place of the Swedish kings, and the Katarina Kyrka. The city also contains a monument to Gustavus III and statues of Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII.

There are a number of important educational institutions, including a polytechnic school, a school of forestry and a medical institute. The royal library has over 300,000 volumes and a large collection of pamphlets. Among the learned societies are the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences and the Swedish Academy. Stockholm is an important industrial center and has manufactures of furniture, tobacco, soap, sugar, malt liquors, and foundry and machine shop products. Shipbuilding is also an important industry. The city has a large trade, and its imports outrank those of any other city of Sweden. Population, 1933, 519,711.

STOCKTON, CAL., the county seat of San Joaquin County, seventy-eight miles northeast of San Francisco, on an arm of the San Joaquin River, at the head of navigation, and on the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé, the

Western Pacific and the Southern Pacific railroads, two airports, and electric roads. It is the center of a rich agricultural and dairying region, which is noted for its natural beauty and equable climate. It was the outfitting point for the miners who went to California in the "rush of '49," and is the gateway to the Yosemite National Park.

It is the trade center of the San Joaquin valley and handles large amounts of lumber, grain, live stock, fruits and vegetables. There are oil and natural gas wells in the valley, and the manufactures include agricultural implements, flour, foundry products, window glass, heavy grading equipment, canned goods, soap and boat-building. The College of Pacific, the state hospital for the insane, Saint Mary's College and Saint Agnes Academy are located here. The city has a public library and a county law library. Notable structures are a courthouse, a post-office, the Masonic Temple, several large bank buildings, a Memorial Auditorium, and a Medico-Dental Building. A waterway 32 feet deep connects the city with the ocean. The place was founded by Charles M. Weber in 1849 and was named in honor of Robert Field Stockton of the United States Navy. It adopted the city manager form of government in 1923. Population, 1930, 47,963.

STOCKTON, FRANCIS RICHARD (1837-1902), an American writer of humorous stories, born at Philadelphia. After graduation from the Philadelphia high school he applied himself to wood-engraving and contributed numerous illustrations to books and magazines. But he soon abandoned this pursuit for journalism. He was employed successively on the *Philadelphia Post*, the *New York Herald and Home*, *Scribner's Monthly* (afterward the *Century Magazine*), and *Saint Nicholas*. His reputation rested, however, upon his short stories and humorous sketches. He told the most impossible tales with a realistic effect irresistibly humorous. He wrote several novels and a number of children's stories. His first work which attracted general notice was *Rudder Grange*. His best-known stories are *The Lady or The Tiger?*, his most popular story; *The Late Mrs. Null*, *The Casting Away of Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine*, *The Merry Chanter*, *Captain Horn* and *The Girl at Cobhurst*.

STODDARD, RICHARD HENRY (1825-1903), an American poet, critic and essayist,

born at Hingham, Mass. He learned the trade of an iron molder and worked at it for several years. Ultimately he began to write for periodicals, and in time devoted much attention to literature. From 1853 to 1870 he worked in the New York custom-house; from 1886 until his death he was editor of the *New York Mail and Express*. Among his numerous writings are *Footprints*, *Songs of Summer*, *The King's Bell*, *The Book of the East* and *Memoir of Edgar Allan Poe*.

STOICISM, *sto' i siz'm*, a system of philosophy developed by Zeno in the latter part of the fourth century B C. The name comes from *stoa*, meaning *porch*, the place at Athens where he taught. Zeno was highly esteemed by the Athenians, and he lived to an advanced age; after his death his system was continued and perfected by his followers. Stoicism became firmly established in Rome, and numbered Cicero, Seneca, Marcus Aurelius and other Romans among its adherents.

Fundamentally, stoicism is the doctrine "that no external thing alone can affect us for good or evil until we have woven it with the texture of our mental life." In other words, it does not influence us unless we permit it to determine our thoughts or acts. Necessarily the doctrine presupposes belief in freedom of the will. Its chief ethical value is its insistence upon the unimportance of external circumstance as compared with our reaction to it. It inculcates courage, self-control, temperance and justice.

In the popular sense a *stoic* is one who is not easily excited, who represses his emotions and is apparently or professedly indifferent to pain and not dependent for happiness upon worldly pleasure.

STOMACH, *stum'ak*, an organ of digestion, formed by the expansion of a portion of the alimentary canal. The human stomach is situated on the left side, just below the diaphragm. It is cone-shaped and turns up at both ends. It has four coats—the serous, or outer; the muscular, which serves to force the food, after it is made into chyme, toward and through the pylorus, to keep the orifice closed till the food is digested and to mix the food thoroughly with the gastric juice; the cellular coat, and the inner, or mucous, coat, which is soft, smooth and velvety and contains the glands which secrete the gastric juice. It has been estimated that there are 5,000,000 openings of these glands in this

membrane. The stomach has two openings, the cardiac through which the food enters from the esophagus, and the pyloric, through which the food enters the intestines. See **DIGESTION**.

STONE. See **ROCK**.

STONE, HARLAN FISKE (1872–), an American lawyer, educated at Amherst, and Columbia University School of Law. From 1899 he was lecturer on law, and from 1910 dean of the Law School at Columbia, until 1924, when he was appointed by President Coolidge Attorney-General of the United States, and soon thereafter Associate Justice of the Supreme Court.

STONE AGE, that period in the history of any people during which their tools and weapons were made of stone. From the relics that are found in various parts of Asia, Africa and America, it seems evident that stone was the first material used by any people for tools and weapons.

The Stone Age naturally divides into two epochs. During the first of these, the implements were rude and simple. Later relics are of many varieties of stone, and some are highly polished; a greater variety, too, is seen—axes, hammers, knives, daggers, spear and arrow heads, saws, chisels, borers and scrapers, all have been found. We know that the people of the Stone Age had some domestic animals and that they built rude houses and, in some cases, put together large mounds of stone as burial places for their dead. In a number of countries, particularly in the Near East, the second epoch is almost entirely missing, for copper was introduced there about the end of the Old Stone Age (see **AGE**). Such a stone and metal culture we call Chaleolithic, that is, copper and stone. The use of tools made of these materials continued side by side until the copper was replaced by bronze or iron. In Europe also there appears to have been a similar period when the use of copper gradually worked its way northward and westward from Asia Minor. See **BRONZE AGE**; **IRON AGE**; **LAKE DWELLINGS**.

STONE CHAT, a common European bird, which lives upon moors and in other open places. It belongs to the warbler family. The peculiarity of its note, which sounds somewhat like two small stones struck together, gives it the name. The bird runs very rapidly and feeds on worms, beetles, insect

larvae and grams. The eggs, from four to five in number, are greenish-blue and spotted. The blue Irish titmouse is a stone chat.

STONEHENGE, *stonhenge*, a celebrated ruin of what is believed to have been a prehistoric place of worship, situated in Wiltshire, Southern England. It consists of a group of huge, rough-hewn stones, from the positions of which it is believed the original plan embraced a horseshoe of stone blocks enclosed within two circles of stones. The outer circle, which is about three hundred feet in circumference, consisted, when entire, of thirty upright stones, each about sixteen feet high, placed at intervals of three and one-half feet, with thirty squared stones resting upon them. The inner circle, which is eight feet from the outer, consisted of about thirty stones, six feet in height, without imposts. The horseshoe consists of five groups of three stones, two uprights with an impost. Before each group stood three smaller upright stones. Inside this is a large slab, supposed to have been an altar. The whole is surrounded by a double mound and ditch, and there is also an avenue leading from the northeast, bounded by a mound and ditch. These circles were probably formed in connection with the Druidical or some other old religion. Originally private property, Stonehenge was presented to the British government as a national memorial in 1918.

STONE MOUNTAIN, an enormous, gray granite rock, a few miles northeast of Atlanta, Ga., which is to be made into a Confederate memorial. The rock mass is 800 feet high and 1,500 feet long. It is planned to cover part of the surface with relief sculpture representing Confederate soldiers mounted and on foot. The figures will be fifty feet high and seen from a distance the whole will show a great army marching forward, part of it mounted, part on foot. Many of the figures will be portraits of Civil War leaders—Lee, Stonewall Jackson and others. The undertaking is in the hands of the Stone Mountain Confederate Memorial Association. The work was designed and directed in its early stage by Gutzon Borglum (which see).

STONE RIVER. See MURFREESBORO, BATTLE OF.

STONES, PRECIOUS. See PRECIOUS STONES.

STONY POINT, N. Y., a town in Rockland County, at the head of Haverstraw Bay, on the Hudson River, forty-two miles north of New York City, on the West Shore and

other railroads. It is on a rocky promontory, which was fortified by the Americans early in the Revolution. The fort was captured, strengthened and garrisoned by the British under Clinton in May, 1779. Washington then ordered General "Mad Anthony" Wayne to regain this position. On July 16, with 1,200 men, he surprised the fort at midnight, entered it with a rush and forced the garrison to surrender at the point of the bayonet. The Americans did not fire a gun; they lost fifteen men killed and eighty-three wounded; the British lost sixty-three killed and 563 captured. Soon after the capture the fortifications were destroyed and the place was abandoned. The ruins of the fort are included in a small national park created in 1902. Population, 1,000.

STORAGE BATTERY. See ELECTRIC BATTERY.

STORK, a large, long-legged bird related to the heron. It frequents swamps and marshes, but is sometimes found in the haunts of man, and occasionally builds its nest on the roofs of inhabited houses. The birds eat frogs, eels and reptiles, and have an economic usefulness. In parts of Europe they are venerated and are birds of good omen. They have no voice; the only sound they utter is a peculiar clattering of the bill.



STORK

The common stork is found in summer throughout Europe and Central Asia. In winter it migrates southward. This bird has black wing coverts, but otherwise the plumage is white. The bill, legs and toes are reddish. A pair returns year after year to the same nest. The eggs are white and from four to five in number. The South American storks are the *maguari* and the *jabiru*. The Asiatic species are the *Japanese stork*, the *white-necked stork*, the *black stork* and the *adjutant*.

STORMS, violent disturbances of the atmosphere, usually accompanied by rain, snow and hail, sometimes by thunder and lightning. Storms are *general* or *local*, and are occasioned by the unequal heating of the atmosphere, which causes unequal pressure over adjoining areas.

Fair and foul weather follow each other in continuous succession over most of the world. The frequency and violence of the changes may vary at different seasons of the year, but in general these are due to local conditions.

A study of the weather maps issued by the United States Weather Bureau shows that there are always in the country one or more areas of low pressure, surrounded by areas of high pressure. The areas of low pressure are those of low barometer and high temperature. They may have a diameter of from 500 to 1,000 miles, and the winds blow toward them from all directions. In the center of the low pressure areas, condensation takes place, followed by rain or snow.

Storm Centers. In the temperate latitudes of the northern hemisphere, the storm center moves eastward, its course usually being from southwest to northeast. In the tropics its direction is westward. In the southern hemisphere, these directions are reversed. The storm centers which move across the United States are usually lost in the Atlantic, only a few reaching Europe. When they do extend thus far, they usually strike the continent north of the British Isles, so in a few instances they have been known to strike the British Isles and even extend as far south as France and Spain. The rain-bearing wind usually comes from the southwest or south, and the area of low pressure is succeeded by one of high pressure, from which the wind blows outward. A north or northwest wind produces a clear sky, a high barometer and a low temperature. In the northern Mississippi valley such a wind often causes a drop of 15° or 20° in the thermometer in less than an hour.

Storms of this character are *cyclone* in their nature; that is, they are caused by currents of air moving from all directions into the area of low pressure, and have a rotary motion on a large scale. They are most frequent in the spring and autumn months. Over the sea, in the tropical latitudes, they often attain such violence as to be destructive to shipping. These storms should not be confounded with the so-called cyclones of the United States, which are tornadoes and cover only a very small area.

Storm Predictions. General storms can usually be predicted from one to two days in advance. They are preceded by a falling barometer, a rise in temperature and cloud-

iness in the west, which usually begins with the formation of long streaks of cirrus clouds. Storms may last from one to ten days, according to the area which they cover and the rapidity with which the area of low pressure moves forward, but their duration seldom exceeds three days.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

Blizzard
Cyclone
Hail
Hurricane
Monsoon
Rain

Snow
Tornado
Typhoon
Weather Bureau
Whirlwind
Wind



STORY TELLING. Perhaps there is no combination of words which the average child uses oftener or speaks more eagerly than "Tell me a story." From the time the child is able to talk until long after he is well able to read stories for himself, mother, father, big sister hear the words over and over—"Tell me a story." There is a popular fallacy that anybody can tell a story; almost anybody will attempt to. But the results are often so confused, tedious and pointless that we can imagine that only because the need for a story is to the child a very pressing one would he accept such results.

We sometimes hear the words "the art of story telling," and the expression is none too strong. Story telling is an art, but that need not frighten anyone, for it is an art which anyone may master sufficiently well to make the telling of a story a pleasure to the one who does it as well as to the children who listen. There are no absolute rules to follow, but certain points must be kept in mind if the results are to be as satisfying as possible.

The Main Purpose of Story Telling. The first important point that needs consideration is the purpose of story telling; for only as the purpose is understood and accomplished can the success or failure of story telling be judged. If we ask a child why he demands stories so constantly, we shall without doubt receive some such reply as, "Because I like to hear them." And that is, after all, the real purpose—to give pleasure. If the story fails in this it fails in all. The art of story telling

is first, last and all the time an art of entertainment, and if it does not entertain it is no art.

Other Purposes. There are, to be sure, other values to story telling; it accomplishes certain things which, with the child, can be brought about in no other way. But these are secondary results, and are by no means to be attained without the primary one—the giving of pleasure.

One of the very practical results of story telling is that it encourages concentration. It will almost always be found that a child who is used to listening to poems or to stories hears better and more easily than a child who has not been so trained. Then, too, a child who has heard all his life good stories well told uses without effort words which are entirely foreign to the vocabulary of another child.

Some people object to having fairy stories told to children because they fear that the imagination may be overdeveloped. There is, however, little fear of this. There is far more danger that the imagination will be underdeveloped, and it is just this danger which the telling of wholesome stories helps to guard against.

One of the most important of all the benefits which a child may derive from listening to good stories is the broadening of his sympathies and comprehension. Most of us live but one kind of a life, and have little opportunity to come in touch with lives spent in totally different surroundings and under totally different circumstances. This has an inevitable narrowing tendency, and there is nothing which can so effectually offset this tendency as good stories which arouse interest in other lives, other conditions, other creatures, other lands.

Telling Stories Better than Reading A person who feels no ability to tell stories is likely to think that reading aloud can supply the need; but anyone who has tried both knows that there is a great difference. The personal element is almost entirely lacking in reading aloud. The eyes of the reader cannot meet and hold the listener's eyes, and the child is far more likely to become restless and lose interest.

The Essentials of a Good Story. Even the most skilful of story tellers cannot make all stories interesting to children; widely as the different kinds of tales which are capable of interesting children differ, they all have some-

thing in common—there are certain qualities which a story must possess before it can ever be a favorite or even be tolerated.

First, it must have a definite beginning and a definite ending. No long introductory explanations are possible in a child's story; the action must begin at once. And the action must have worked itself out to its logical end before the story closes. The desire to make a story a "piece out of life" has led many writers of short stories for grown people to end their tales in the vaguest, most indefinite way; we do not know what really happened to the hero or heroine—we can only conjecture. But the child must know absolutely what happened, and if he can know that his story people were not only happy when the story closed but "lived happy ever after," so much the better.

Another requisite is that the story have action from first to last. Asides, moralizing, description, unless they are very brief, will not do. The characters must be moving, accomplishing something all the time.

The child's invariable desire for a happy ending to a story is simply an outgrowth of his feeling of justice. If the bad person is not punished and the good person rewarded, the child feels, the world is all wrong. As people grow older and see the many apparent failures of this principle of justice to work out, they accustom themselves to the same thing in literature; but the desire for a happy ending is innate in everyone, and it is seldom if ever that a child should be harrowed with a tale in which the hero or heroine comes to grief.

There is one point which everyone who has told stories to children must have noticed, and that is their fondness for certain little details which to an adult seem absolutely unessential. If there is a bit of color somewhere in a story, and it is left out in the fifth or the eighth or the tenth telling, the child misses it and feels disappointed. One woman declares that when she was a little girl the story of the Ugly Duckling never seemed quite the same to her if the old Spanish duck with the red rag around her leg was left out.

One device which is not really necessary in children's stories but which adds greatly to their attractiveness to the child mind is the repetition of certain words or phrases. This may take the form of a simple repetition of descriptive adjectives applied to a character, as the "little small wee bear" in the story of

the *Three Bears*, or it may be more elaborate—the repeating of several lines of a speech. Just why this makes so strong an appeal to children is not quite plain, but it is certain that it does so. One worker, who had had much experience telling stories to children, made systematic inquiries as to what stories children really like best, and discovered that the prime favorites were *The Three Bears*, *The Three Little Pigs* and *The Little Pig That Wouldn't Go Over the Stile*. Each of these stories has much repetition, and doubtless this fact has something to do with their popularity, though the stories have all of the characteristics of good children's stories.

How to Tell a Story. Now a story consists of the gathering up of one set of emotional events from a possible million. What makes a tale tedious? Trying to mention as many of the million as possible, instead of keeping to the one set. What makes it confused? Trying to give the events without keeping in mind that they are in one set—that is, related definitely to each other. What makes a story pointless? Forgetting that, as the set of events is emotional, it must lead to some climax, some happening or point.

Once we get the idea of what a story really is, and hold to it, we are pretty likely to find that we, too, can tell a story well, after a little practice. Your "natural" storyteller—the one who seems to have a veritable "gift" for telling stories to children—is keenly alive and constantly awake to what a story is, and because she is so, follows some such rules as these:

Know Your Story. Know it so well that you feel free while you are telling it—certain just where each point is to come in, and sure of your climax. A few stories well learned is a better plan than many imperfectly known and thus poorly told. Do not feel that a story must always be told in the same words. Probably it will not be told twice alike, for the circumstances of its telling are never twice the same. If, however, there are conversations or familiar passages or some of the repetitions of which children are so fond, they should not be changed.

Be Happy In It. Your enjoyment and appreciation will convey themselves to the children. "Teacher makes us all laugh when she tells *The Hare and the Tortoise*. We wish she'd tell it every day." No one can tell really well a story which seems to him pointless or foolish or uninteresting.

See As You Tell. Live over again the events of the narrative as you talk. Try to see the things happen, rather than to think overmuch about your words, and the story will unconsciously become vivid, dramatic and interesting.

Keep the Point in Mind. Let the story shape itself gradually, always with this one group of emotional events in mind. Don't drag in anything, however interesting, that is not closely connected with the business of the story. Let all you say illuminate your text in some way.

Telling "The Three Goats." The following story was told just as it is given here, by a teacher familiar with the principles of good story telling. Notice (1) her familiarity with it, (2) her own evident enjoyment of it, (3) its vividness and action, and (4) how all that is told helps on the movement of the tale. There is no attempt at moralizing, and yet how plainly the results of the various actions come out!

The Three Goats

Once upon a time there were three goats who were going to the green pasture across the river to eat, and eat, and eat, so that they would become very fat. They all three happened to be named "Gruff."

Now a great ugly troll lived under the bridge they had to cross to reach the green pasture. Ah, but he was a monster, his eyes were as big as plates and his wiggly nose as long as a hoe-handle!

The youngest goat Gruff stepped upon the bridge first.

"Trip trap! Trip trap!" whispered the bridge.

"Who is tripping over my bridge?" called the dreadful troll.

"Oh! it is only I, the very smallest of the goats Gruff."

"I'm coming to eat you up!" roared the troll.

"Please, please don't! I wouldn't make a mouthful for you. Wait till the second goat Gruff comes. He is much larger than I am."

"Trip on, then. I want a bigger mouthful," growled the troll.

Soon the second goat Gruff came along.

"Trip trap! Trip trap!" said the bridge.

"Who is tripping over my bridge?" called the dreadful troll.

"It is I, the second goat Gruff," said the goat in a voice like yours or mine.

"I'm coming to eat you up!" roared the troll.

"Please don't! I'm not very big. Wait till the third goat Gruff comes. He is much larger than I. He'd be well worth eating."

"Trip on, then. I want a very large meal," replied the ugly troll.

Very soon the big goat Gruff came.

"Trip trap! Trip trap!" called the bridge. It was ready to break with the weight.

"Who is stamping over my bridge?" called the dreadful troll

"IT IS I, THE GREAT GOAT GRUFF!" called the largest goat in a voice as loud as the troll's

"I'm coming to eat you up!" roared the troll
 "HO! COME ON, THEN, COME!" roared the great goat Gruff

And the troll came. The great goat Gruff butted him with his great horns and threw him into the river in a hundred pieces. He never ate up anyone again who tried to cross the bridge.

Then the three goats Gruff ate, and ate, and ate, in the green pasture. Unless they have stopped, they are eating there still.

Kinds of Stories. Almost any kind of a story provided it has action and a definite beginning and climax may be told so as to interest children, but there are certain kinds which seem of right to belong to the child. First of these, perhaps, is the fable. Even very young children like and can appreciate fables, and the endowing of animals with human characteristics is no strain on their imagination. (This subject is treated under LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR, and a number of fables are there given.)

It is likely that if any group of children were asked what kind of stories they liked best the majority of them would say, without hesitation "fairy stories." By this they mean not only stories in which real fairies take a part, but any stories in which supernatural events occur. The introduction of the supernatural troubles them not at all. It is to them the one great essential that virtue should be rewarded and wickedness punished, and if the reward and punishment are dealt out by fairy godmothers, enchanted princesses, kings' sons who are disguised as animals, so much the better. And the most of the old fairy tales present to the child moral truths and give him lessons in kindness and industry which he could receive so acceptably in no other way.

The ancient myths, many of them, have that in them which appeals powerfully to children. These should, of course, to the young child be told simply as stories, with no intimation that he is being instructed in the religion and science of the world in its childhood days.

Humor is an element which is all too often absent from children's literature; and that children do enjoy it is shown by their appreciation of nonsense tales—tales which have in them little of story, but plenty of just that quality which appeals to children as "funny."

The nature story may be made very valuable, but the danger is always that it will be overdrawn; that the children will be given ideas of things in the world about them which are untrue. This does not mean that no tales should be told in which animals talk or show human characteristics; it does mean that care should be taken not to humanize too much the dog, the butterfly, the violet waking in the spring.

Historical tales and Bible tales, well told, never fail to interest children, and the lessons which they carry find their way into the minds of the little listeners without the necessity for emphasis on the moral.

A number of stories illustrating these different classes are given here, some of them, the real classics, being given just as they were written; others have been specially adapted for telling, for it is one of the essential points about story-telling that a story which is adapted for reading is very often not adapted for telling. Other stories are found in the KINDERGARTEN department of this work, and in the article BIBLE, while numerous fables and some story poems are included in the department of LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR. Under MYTHOLOGY is to be found a representative collection of myths.

The Frog and the Ox

A FABLE

As an ox was grazing in a marshy meadow, he happened to set his foot on a family of young frogs, and trod almost the whole of them to death. One, however, escaped, and telling his mother of the sad fate of the rest of her family, he said, "And mother, it was such a big beast! I never saw such a large one in my life."

"Was it as large as this?" said the old frog blowing her self as much as possible. "Oh!" said the little one, "a great deal bigger, mother." "Well, was it as big as this?" and she puffed out her speckled skin still more. "O mother, it is no use your trying to make yourself as big as it, for were you even to burst yourself you would not be near its size." The mother frog was much annoyed at this remark so she once more tried to increase her size, and she burst herself indeed.

MORAL—Do not covet that which is beyond your reach.

The Donkey in the Lion's Skin

A FABLE

A donkey, having found the skin of a lion, put it on, and, going into the fields, amused himself by frightening all the animals he met. Seeing a fox, he tried to alarm him also. But Reynard, perceiving his long ears sticking out, and hearing his voice, at once knew who it was. "Ah!" said he, "I should have been frightened too, if I had not heard you bray."

MORAL—It is not wise to judge a man by the coat he wears

Frau Holle
A FAIRY TALE

There was once a widow who had two daughters; one was as pretty as could be, and worked hard for her living, the other was ugly and idle

Now, it chanced that the widow loved the ugly daughter better than the pretty one, because she was her very own, whilst the pretty maiden was only her step-daughter. So, besides doing all the work of the house, the poor girl was sent every day to sit beside the village well and spin a bundle of flax into yarn. Sometimes she had to work so hard that her poor little fingers were covered with blood,

and when she came to herself again she found that she had fallen into a beautiful meadow, decked with every sweet and lovely flower, where the sun was shining brightly

As she strolled along the meadow path, she came to an oven full of bread "Take us out! take us out! or we shall burn," cried the loaves; "we are just baked enough"

So the girl opened the oven door and took out the bread and then went on her way again. Presently she came to an apple-tree weighed down with fruit, and it called to her as she passed. "Shake me! shake me! My apples are all ripe" So she shook the apple-tree till the apples fell like rain around her. When there were no more left upon the tree, she stacked them in heaps, and went her way



THE FEATHERS FLEW LIKE
SNOWFLAKES

and one day, when this happened, and a few drops of blood had fallen upon the spindle, she bent over the well to wash it clean again, and dropped it in.

She ran weeping to her step-mother, to tell her what had happened, and the angry woman scolded her without mercy. "As you have let the spindle fall in," said she, "you must just go and fetch it out again"

So the poor little maid went back to the well, and in her sorrow and despair, she jumped straight into it, to see if she could find her spindle. At once she lost all con-

sciousness, and when she reached a little house, where an old woman was looking out of the window. The girl was afraid of her great big teeth, and would have run away, but she called to her. "Do not be afraid of me, dear child, I am Frau Holle. Stay with me, and help me with the housework. If you are a good girl, all shall go well with you. But you must take great pains to shake up my bed and make the feathers fly, or else there will be no snow to cover up the earth."

The old woman spoke so kindly that the girl took courage and agreed to stay with her

She worked as hard as she was able, and pleased the old woman in everything she did. She shook the bed with such a will that the feathers flew like snow-flakes. So she led a happy life, with never an unkind word to grieve her, and had boiled and baked meats to eat every day. Time passed on, and the little maid grew pale and sad, though she herself could not tell at first what ailed her. At length she thought it must be homesickness, for, although she was treated a thousand times better than ever she had been at home, she had a great longing to go back again. So she went to the old woman and told her how she felt.

"I have been very happy here," she said; "but I have such a longing to see my own people once again that I can stay here no longer."

"It is right you should wish to go home, my child," answered Frau Holle. "You have served me faithfully all this long time, so I will see that you have a safe journey back."

She took the girl by the hand and led her to a great gate, which stood wide open. As soon as she passed through, a shower of golden rain fell and covered her with glittering gold from head to foot, so that she looked as though she was clad in a golden mantle. "That is my gift to you, because you have been a good, hard-working girl," said Frau Holle, and then gave her as well, the spindle which she had let fall into the well so long ago.

Immediately afterward the gate shut with a clang, and the girl found herself back in the world once more, and quite near to her mother's house. As she entered the courtyard, the cock began to crow:

"Cock-a-doodle-doo-doo-doo!"

The golden girl's come back to you!"

Then the little maid went in to her mother and sister, who made a great fuss over her, now that she had come home covered with gold.

She told them all that had happened, and when the mother heard how her pretty daughter had come by her fortune, she was anxious that her ugly daughter should have the same good luck. So she sent her to sit by the side of the well, and put a spindle into her hand. The lazy girl had never pricked her fingers with spinning, but she thrust her hand into a thorn-bush, so that it might look as though she had.

Then she threw the spindle into the well, and jumped in after it.

She fell just as her sister had done, into a beautiful flowery meadow, and followed the same path.

When she came to the oven, the bread cried out as before: "Take us out, or we shall burn. We are just baked enough."

The lazy girl answered: "I am not going to soil my hands for you."

Soon she came to the apple-tree. "Shake me! shake me, My apples are all ripe," it cried.

But the girl tossed her head and went on her way. "If I were to shake you," she said

scornfully, I might get a bump on my head from one of you for my pains."

When she reached Frau Holle's house she saw her looking out of the window, but was not in the least afraid of her, because she had heard beforehand of her large teeth. She engaged herself to the old woman, and at first things went very well. She remembered the gold she would receive at the end of her service and did her work as well as she was able.

But very soon she grew lazy, and would not get up in the mornings. Then too, she neglected Frau Holle's bed shamefully, and scarcely shook it at all, so that there was not a feather to be seen. So her mistress soon tired of her, and told her to go home.

Miss Lazybones was delighted, for she thought the time had now come for the shower of gold but when Frau Holle led her beneath the great gateway, instead of gold there fell a shower of pitch. "This is the reward for your services," said the old woman, and banged the door behind the idle girl.

And so, when she reached home, covered with pitch, and as black as a sweep, the cock, perched on the wall beside the well, began to crow:

"Cock-a-doodle-doo-doo-doo!"

Your dirty girl's come back to you!"

And dirty the girl remained all the days of her life, for, try as much as she would, she could never wash the pitch off again.

This is one of the tales that has a very plain moral—so plain that it need not be pointed out to the youngest child. Even children sometimes object to the "goody-goody," "Sunday School" stories with their obvious lessons; but the wonder element in this story, the striking character of the reward and the punishment make the story very attractive to children.

The Little Pig that wouldn't go over the stile A NONSENSE TALE

One day, as a little old woman was sweeping her little house, she found a crooked sixpence, and she said, "I will go to the market and buy a little pig with this crooked sixpence."

So she did, and as she was coming home she came to a stile.

"Little pig, little pig, go over the stile," said the little old woman; but the little pig would not.

She went a little farther and met a dog, and she said "Dog, dog, bite pig, pig won't go over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the dog would not.

She went a little farther and met a stick and she said "Stick, stick, beat dog, dog won't bite pig, pig won't go over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the stick would not.

She went a little farther, and she met a fire. So she said:

"Fire, fire, burn stick, stick won't beat dog, dog won't bite pig; pig won't get over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the fire would not.

She went a little farther, and she met some water. So she said, "Water, water, quench fire, fire won't burn stick, stick won't beat dog, dog won't bite pig, pig won't get over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the water would not.

She went a little farther, and she met an ox. So she said "Ox, ox, drink water, water won't quench fire, fire won't burn stick, stick won't beat dog, dog won't bite pig, pig won't get over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the ox would not.

She went a little farther and she met a butcher. So she said "Butcher, butcher, kill ox; ox won't drink water, water won't quench fire, fire won't burn stick, stick won't beat dog, dog won't bite pig, pig won't get over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the butcher would not.

She went a little farther, and she met a rope. So she said "Rope, rope, hang butcher; butcher won't kill ox, ox won't drink water, water won't quench fire, fire won't burn stick, stick won't beat dog, dog won't bite pig, pig won't get over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the rope would not.

milk, I will kill the rat." So away went the old woman to the cow.

But the cow said to her, "If you will go to yonder hay-stack, and fetch me a handful of hay, I'll give you the milk." So away went the old woman to the hay-stack, and she brought the hay to the cow.

As soon as the cow had eaten the hay, she gave the old woman the milk, and away she went with it in the saucer to the cat.

As soon as the cat had lapped up the milk, the cat began to kill the rat, the rat began to gnaw the rope, the rope began to hang the butcher, the butcher began to kill the ox, the ox began to drink the water, the water began to quench the fire, the fire began to burn the stick, the stick began to beat the dog, the dog began to bite the pig, the little pig jumped over the stile, and so the old woman got home that night.

The Ugly Duckling

A NATURE STORY

It was glorious in the country, it was summer, the cornfields were yellow, the oats were green, the hay had been put up in stacks in the



"LITTLE FIG, LITTLE FIG, GO OVER THE STILE"

She went a little farther, and she met a rat. So she said: "Rat, rat, gnaw rope, rope won't hang butcher, butcher won't kill ox, ox won't drink water, water won't quench fire, fire won't burn stick, stick won't beat dog, dog won't bite pig, pig won't get over the stile; and I shall not get home tonight." But the rat would not.

She went a little farther, and she met a cat. So she said: "Cat, cat, kill rat, rat won't gnaw rope, rope won't hang butcher, butcher won't kill ox, ox won't drink water, water won't quench fire, fire won't burn stick, stick won't beat dog, dog won't bite pig, pig won't get over the stile, and I shall not get home tonight." But the cat said to her, "If you will go to yonder cow, and fetch me a saucer of

green meadows, and the stork went about on his long red legs, and chattered Egyptian, for this was the language he had learned from his mother. All around the fields and meadows were great woods, and in the midst of these woods deep lakes. Yes, it was right glorious in the country.

In the midst of the sunshine there lay an old farm, with deep canals about it, and from the wall down to the water grew great burdock, so high that little children could stand upright under the tallest of them. It was just as wild there as in the deepest wood, and here rat a Duck upon her nest, she had to hatch her ducklings, but she was almost tired out before the little ones came, and she seldom had visitors. The other ducks liked better to swim

about in the canals than to run up to sit under a burdock, and gabble with her.

At last one egg-shell after another burst open. "Pip! pip!" each cried, and in all the eggs there were little things that stuck out their heads.

"Quack! quack!" said the Duck, and they all came quacking out as fast as they could, looking all around them under the green leaves, and the mother let them look as much as they liked, for green is good for the eye.

"How wide the world is!" said all the young ones, for they certainly had much more room now than when they were inside the eggs.

"D'ye think this is all the world?" said the mother. "That stretches far across the other side of the garden, quite into the parson's field, but I have never been there yet. I hope you are all together," and she stood up. "No, I have not all. The largest egg still lies there. How long is that to last? I am really tired of it." And so she sat down again.

"Well, how goes it?" asked an old Duck who had come to pay her a visit.

"It takes a long time for this one egg," said the Duck who sat there. "It will not open now, only look at the others! They are the prettiest little ducks I ever saw. They are all like their father—the rogue, he never comes to see me."

"Let me see the egg which will not burst," said the old Duck. "You may be sure it is a turkey's egg. I was once cheated in that way, and had much care and trouble with the young ones, for they are afraid of the water. Must I say it to you? I could not make them go in. I quacked, and I clacked, but it was no use. Let me see the egg. Yes, that's a turkey's egg. Let it lie there, and do you teach the other children to swim."

"I think I will sit on it a little longer," said the Duck. "I've sat so long now that I can sit a few days more."

"Just as you please," said the old Duck; and she went away.

At last the great egg burst. "Pip! pip!" said the little ones, and crept forth. He was so big and ugly. The Duck looked at him.

"It's a very large Duckling," said she. "None of the others looks like that; it really must be a turkey chick! Well, we shall soon find out. Into the water shall we go, even if I have to push him in."

The next day it was bright, beautiful weather; the sun shone on all the green burdocks. The Mother-Duck with all her family went down to the canal. Splash! she jumped into the water. "Quack! quack!" she said, and one duckling after another plumped in. The water closed over their heads, but they came up in an instant, and swam off finely; their legs went of themselves, and they were all in the water, even the ugly gray Duckling swam with them.

"No, it's not a turkey," said she; "look how well he uses his legs, how straight he holds himself. It is my own child! On the whole he's quite pretty, when one looks at him rightly. Quack! quack! come now with me, and I'll lead you out into the world, and present you in

the duck-yard, but keep close to me all the time, so that no one may tread on you, and look out for the cats."

And so they came into the duck-yard. There was a terrible row going on in there, for two families were fighting about an eel's head and so the cat got it.

"See that's the way it goes in the world!" said the Mother-Duck; and she whetted her beak, for she too wanted the eel's head. "Only use your legs," she said. "See that you can bustle about, and bend your necks before the old Duck yonder. She's the grandest of all here, she's of Spanish blood—that's why she's so fat; and do you see? she has a red rag around her leg, that's something very, very fine, and the greatest mark of honor a duck can have. It means that one does not want to lose her, and that she's known by the animals and by men too. Hurry! hurry!—don't turn in your toes, a well-brought-up duck turns its toes quite out, just like father and mother—so! Now bend your necks and say 'Quack!'"

And they did so. but the other ducks round about looked at them, and said quite boldly.

"Look there! now we're to have this crowd too! as if there were not enough of us already! And—flee!—how that Duckling yonder looks, we won't stand that!" And at once one duck flew at him, and bit him in the neck.

"Let him alone," said the mother, "he is not doing anything to anyone."

"Yes, but he's too large and odd," said the Duck who had bitten him, "and so he must be put down."

"Those are pretty children the mother has," said the old Duck with the rag round her leg. "They're all pretty but that one; that is rather unlucky. I wish she could have that one over again."

"That cannot be done, my lady," said the Mother-Duck. "He is not pretty, but he has a really good temper, and swims as well as any of the others; yes, I may even say it, a little better. I think he will grow up pretty, perhaps in time he will grow a little smaller, he lay too long in the egg, and therefore he has not quite the right shape. And she pinched him in the neck, and smoothed his feathers. 'Besides, he is a drake,' she said, 'and so it does not matter much. I think he will be very strong; he makes his way already.'"

"The other ducklings are graceful enough," said the old Duck. "Make yourself at home; and if you find an eel's head, you may bring it to me."

And now they were at home. But the poor Duckling who had crept last out of the egg, and looked so ugly, was bitten and pushed and made fun of, both by the ducks and chickens.

"He is too big!" they all said. And the turkey-cock, who had been born with spurs, and so thought he was an emperor, blew himself up, like a ship in full sail, and bore straight down upon him, then he gobbled and grew quite red in the face. The poor Duckling did not know where he dared stand or walk, he was quite unhappy because he looked ugly, and was the sport of the whole duck-yard.

So it went on the first day, and then it grew worse and worse. The poor Duckling was hunted about by everyone, even his brothers and sisters were quite angry with him, and said, "If the cat would only catch you, you ugly creature!" And the ducks bit him and the chickens beat him, and the girl who had to feed the poultry kicked at him with her foot.

Then he ran and flew over the fence, and the little birds in the bushes flew up in fear.

"That is because I am so ugly!" thought the Duckling, and he shut his eyes, but flew on farther, and so he came out into the great moor, where the wild ducks lived. Here he lay the whole night long, he was so tired and sad.

Toward morning the wild ducks flew up, and looked at their new mate.

"What sort of a one are you?" they asked, and the Duckling turned about to each, and bowed as well as he could. "You are really very ugly!" said the Wild Ducks. "But that is all the same to us, so long as you do not marry into our family."

Poor thing! he certainly did not think of marrying, and only dared ask leave to lie among the reeds and drink some of the swamp water.

There he lay two whole days, then came thither two wild geese, or more truly, two wild ganders. It was not long since each had crept out of an egg, and that's why they were so saucy.

"Listen, comrade," said one of them. "You're so ugly that I like you. Will you go with us, and become a bird of passage? Near here is another moor, where are a few sweet lovely wild geese, all unmarried, and all able to say 'Quack!' You've a chance of making your fortune, ugly as you are."

"Piff! paff!" sounded through the air, and both the ganders fell down dead in the reeds, and the water became blood red. "Piff! paff!" it sounded again, and the whole flock of wild geese flew up from the reeds. And then there was another report. A great hunt was going on. The gunners lay around in the moor, and some were even sitting up in the branches of the trees, which spread far over the reeds. The blue smoke rose like clouds in among the dark trees, and hung over the water, and the hunting dogs came—splash, splash!—into the mud, and the rushes and reeds bent down on every side. That was a fright for the poor Duckling! He turned his head to put it under his wing, and at that very moment a frightful great dog stood close by the Duckling. His tongue hung far out of his mouth, and his eyes glared horribly. He put his nose close to the Duckling, showed his sharp teeth, and—splash, splash!—on he went without seizing it.

"Oh, Heaven be thanked!" sighed the Duckling. "I am so ugly that even the dog does not like to bite me!"

And so he lay quite quiet, while the shots rattled through the reeds and gun after gun was fired. At last, late in the day, all was still, but the poor little thing did not dare to rise up, he waited several hours still before he looked around, and then hurried away out of the moor as fast as he could. He ran on

over field and meadow, there was a storm, so that he had hard work to get away.

Towards evening the Duckling came to a peasant's poor little hut, it was so tumbled down that it did not itself know on which side it should fall, and that's why it stood up. The storm whistled around the Duckling in such a way that he had to sit down to keep from blowing away, and the wind blew worse and worse. Then he noticed that one of the hinges of the door had given way, and the door hung so slanting that he could slip through the crack into the room, and that is what he did.

Here lived an old woman, with her Cat and her Hen. And the Cat, whom she called Sonnie, could arch his back and purr, he could even give out sparks; but for that, one had to stroke his fur the wrong way. The Hen had quite small, short legs, and therefore she was called Chickabiddy Shortshanks, she laid good eggs, and the woman loved her.

In the morning they noticed at once the strange Duckling, and the Cat began to purr and the Hen to cluck.

"What's this?" said the woman, and looked all around, but she could not see well, therefore she thought the Duckling was a fat duck that had strayed. "This is a rare prize!" she said. "Now I shall have duck's eggs. I hope it is not a drake. We must try that."

And so the Duckling was taken on trial for three weeks, but no eggs came. And the Cat was master of the house, and the Hen was the lady, and always said "We and the world!" for they thought they were half the world, and by far the better half. It seemed to the Duckling that one might have another mind, but the Hen would not allow it.

"Can you lay eggs?"

"No."

"Then will you hold your tongue?"

And the Cat said, "Can you curve your back, and purr, and give out sparks?"

"No."

"Then you will please have no opinion of your own when sensible folks are speaking!"

And the Duckling sat in a corner and was in low spirits, then he began to think of the fresh air and the sunshine, and he was seized with such a strange longing to swim on the water, that he could not help telling the Hen of it.

"What are you thinking of?" cried the Hen. "You have nothing to do, that's why you have these fancies. Lay eggs, or purr, and they will pass over."

"But it is so charming to swim in the water," said the Duckling, "so nice to feel it go over one's head, and to dive down to the bottom!"

"Yes, that's a fine thing, truly," said the Hen. "You are clean gone crazy. Ask the Cat about it—he's the cleverest thing I know—ask him if he likes to swim in the water or to dive down. I won't speak about myself. Ask our mistress herself, the old woman, no one in the world knows more than she. Do you think she wants to swim, and to let the water close above her head?"

"You don't understand me," said the Duckling.

"We don't understand you! Then pray who is to understand you? You surely don't pretend to be cleverer than the Cat and the woman—I won't say anything of myself. Don't make a fool of yourself, child, and thank your Maker for all the good you have. Are you not come into a warm room, and have you not folks about you from whom you can learn something? But you are a goose, and it is not pleasant to have you about. You may believe me, I speak for your good. I tell you things you won't like, and by that one may always know one's true friends! Only take care that you learn to lay eggs, or to purr, and to give out sparks."

"I think I will go out into the wide world," said the Duckling.

"Yes, do go," replied the Hen.

And so the Duckling went away. He swam on the water, and dived, but he was shunned by every creature because he was so ugly.

Now came the fall of the year. The leaves in the wood turned yellow and brown, the wind caught them so that they danced about, and up in the air it was very cold. The clouds hung low, heavy with hail and snow-flakes, and on the fence stood the raven, crying, "Croak! croak!" for mere cold, yes, one could freeze fast if one thought about it. The poor little Duckling certainly had not a good time. One evening—the sun was just going down in fine style—there came a whole flock of great handsome birds out of the bushes, they were shining white, with long, supple necks, they were swans. They uttered a very strange cry, spread forth their glorious great wings, and flew away from that cold region to warmer lands, to fair open lakes. They mounted so high, so high! and the ugly Duckling had such a strange feeling as he saw them! He turned round and round in the water like a wheel, stretched out his neck towards them, and uttered a cry, so high, so strange, that he feared as he heard it. Oh! he could not forget those beautiful, happy birds, and as soon as he could see them no longer, he dived down to the very bottom, and when he came up again, he was quite beside himself. He did not know what the birds were, nor where they were flying to, but he loved them more than he had ever loved anyone. He did not envy them at all. How could he think of wishing to have such loveliness as they had? He would have been glad if only the ducks would have let him be among them—the poor, ugly creature!

And the winter grew so cold, so cold! The Duckling had to swim about in the water, to keep it from freezing over, but every night the hole in which he swam about became smaller and smaller. It froze so hard that the icy cover sounded, and the Duckling had to use his legs all the time to keep the hole from freezing tight. At last he became worn out, and lay quite still and thus froze fast in the ice.

Early in the morning a peasant came by, and found him there, he took his wooden shoe, broke the ice to pieces, and carried the Duckling home to his wife. Then the Duckling came to himself again. The children wanted

to play with him, but he thought they wanted to hurt him, and in his terror he flew up into the milk-pan, so that the milk spilled over into the room. The woman screamed and shook her hand in the air, at which the Duckling flew down into the tub where they kept the butter, and then into the meal-barrel and out again. How he looked then! The woman screamed, and struck at him with the fire tongs, the children tumbled over one another as they tried to catch the Duckling, and they laughed and they screamed—"well was it that the door stood open, and the poor creature was able to slip out between the bushes into the newly-fallen snow. There he lay quite worn out."

But it would be too sad if I were to tell all the misery and care which the Duckling had to bear in the hard winter. He lay out on the moor among the reeds, when the sun began to shine again and the larks to sing, it was a beautiful spring.

Then all at once the Duckling could flap his wings. they beat the air more strongly than before, and bore him stoutly away, and before he well knew it, he found himself in a great garden, where the elder-trees stood in flower and bent their long green branches down to the winding canal, and the lilacs smelt sweet. Oh, here it was beautiful, fresh, and spring-like! and from the thicket came three glorious white swans, they rustled their wings, and sat lightly on the water. The Duckling knew the splendid creatures, and felt a very strange sadness.

"I will fly away to them, to the royal birds! and they will beat me, because I, that am so ugly, dare to come near them. But it is all the same. Better to be killed by them than to be chased by ducks, and beaten by fowls, and pushed about by the girl who takes care of the poultry-yard, and to suffer hunger in winter!" And he flew out into the water, and swam toward the beautiful swans. These looked at him, and came sailing down upon him with outspread wings. "Kill me!" said the poor creature, and bent his head down upon the water, and waited for death. But what saw he in the clear water? He saw below him his own image, and, lo! it was no longer a clumsy dark-gray bird, ugly and hateful to look at, but—a swan!

It matters nothing if one is born in a duck-yard, if one has only lain in a swan's egg.

He felt quite glad at all the need and hard times he had borne, now he could joy in his good luck in all the brightness that was round him. And the great swans swam round him and stroked him with their beaks.

Into the garden came little children, who threw bread and corn into the water, and the youngest cried, "There is a new one!" and the other children shouted, "Yes, a new one has come!" And they clapped their hands and danced about, and ran to their father and mother, and bread and cake were thrown into the water, and they all said, "The new one is the most beautiful of all! so young and so handsome!" and the old swans bowed their heads before him.



HE WAS NO LONGER A CLUMSY, DARK GRAY BIRD. BUT—A SWAN!

Then he felt quite ashamed and hid his head under his wings, for he did not know what to do, he was so happy, and yet not at all proud, for a good heart is never proud. He thought how he had been driven about and mocked and despised, and now he heard them all saying that he was the most beautiful of all beautiful birds. And the lilacs bent their branches straight down into the water before him, and the sun shone warm and mild. Then his wings rustled, he lifted his slender neck, and cried from the depths of his heart:

"I never dreamed of so much happiness when I was the Ugly Duckling."

We are not accustomed to thinking of this as a nature study, but it has all the elements of the nature tales which modern writers of stories for children produce in such abundance. The emphasis, to be sure, is on the human side of the animal characters, but the other side is not neglected. As we read the ugly duckling seems to us like a person, but he also seems like a duckling. The attitude of the other ducks toward the ugly duckling, who is near enough like them not to seem a stranger, and yet not exactly one of themselves; the instinct which makes the duckling, all unconscious that he is himself a swan, cry out when he sees the other swans; the instinct which keeps the hunter's dog, trained to pick up dead geese, from touching the live swan—all these are true to nature.

The lesson of the story, which is very plain, is a most beautiful one, and one which parents and teachers cannot afford to miss. There is many a child, awkward, conscious, large for his age, who is mistreated, laughed at, sometimes even abused, just because he is not like other children. And then, perhaps, later it is found to be just a repetition of the story of the ugly duckling; the child did not seem like other children because he was not like other children. He was something bigger, stronger, more beautiful than they, and for that reason it took him longer to develop.

We might read over and over some such statement as this: "Just because a child is different from others, just because he is not attractive as a child, we cannot judge what he will be as a man. Perhaps he will amount to more in the end than all of his normal associates." But would such a statement make much impression on us? When we read *The Ugly Duckling*, however, we find it impossible to forget the lesson it teaches, and we find ourselves more ready to say, when we see a misjudged child, "Look out. He may turn out to be a real ugly duckling."

The Gifts the Dwarfs Made

A NORSE MYTH RETOLD FOR CHILDREN

This is a story about dwarfs, little dark men who lived far down under ground and made wonderful things.

Sif, Thor's wife, was most beautiful, with her blue eyes, fair skin, and golden hair. Her hair! It was the most glorious hair that had ever grown on anyone's head—bright and soft and fine, and so long and heavy that when she let it down it covered her from head to foot like a golden veil. Of course she was very proud of it, and of course Thor was proud of it too and loved to watch her shake it out so that it shone and rippled like a golden waterfall in the sun.

One morning when she woke, Sif found that her hair had been cut off close to her head. A look into her polished silver mirror showed her that the most of her beauty had gone with her hair, and she scarcely dared face her husband, but when she told Thor his anger was terrible to behold.

"It is Loki, the wicked Loki, who has done this," he cried, "and he shall suffer for it."

For Loki was a crafty schemer, always trying to annoy someone, and particularly fond of troubling Thor.

It was no easy task for Thor to catch the thief, for Loki had the power of changing his shape to that of anything he chose, and he made good use of his power now. Finally, however, Thor found him and grabbed him by the throat.

"Confess," he cried, "that you stole Sif's hair."

But his grip was so strong that Loki could only gasp and wriggle.

"Unless you give it back," Thor continued, "I shall kill you here and now," and he loosened his grasp that Loki might answer.

"I did it," confessed Loki sullenly, "but I cannot give it back, for I opened my hands and scattered it all over the earth."

"Then you shall die!" thundered Thor, and would have kept his word had not Loki promised to get for Sif a new head of hair as beautiful as the first.

"Go then," commanded Thor, "and make haste."

Loki slunk away and crept into the earth where lived his friends the dwarfs. They were ugly and not always very pleasant, but Loki knew their skill and knew that they were proud to be called on to show it. So he implored them to make for him not only the golden hair, but gifts for Odin and Frey, Thor's powerful friends of whose anger Loki was afraid.

To anyone else it might have seemed like a very difficult matter to have to make a head of golden hair, but the dwarfs thought nothing of it. They brought their gold and when they had softened it they spun it out into countless fine hairs. These they braided into a huge coil and gave to Loki.

"It may seem dead now," said the master-smith, "but when it touches Sif's head it will at once become alive and begin to grow, yet it will always be real gold."

Wonderful as this was it was not the most wonderful of the dwarfs' gifts. For how could anything be as wonderful as the spear which they made for Odin, the spear which however it was thrown never missed its aim, or as the ship which they made for Frey? For this ship, while it could be folded up and thrust into the pocket, could be made so large that hundreds of people might ride in it in comfort, and it sailed as well in the air as on the water and always in just the right direction, no matter which way the wind blew.

No wonder Loki was pleased, and no wonder he cried aloud to the master-smith:

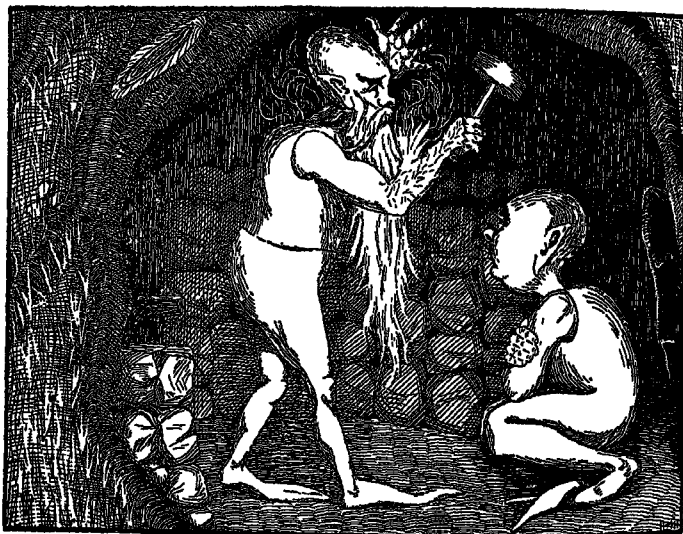
"You are surely the most clever smith in all the world. No one else, I am sure, could make such things."

But someone was passing and heard these words and was not pleased to hear them, this was the dwarf Brock, who belonged to a dif-

ferent family of dwarfs. Without a word Brock turned and hurried to his brother's smithy, where he told his story, and Sindri, proud of his brother's faith in him, at once set to work. But first he said to Brock:

"You must blow the bellows while the gifts are being made, for I must go outside and work my magic spells or I shall not be able to accomplish anything wonderful, and whatever happens never leave off blowing the bellows." And with these words he tossed into the fire a pig's skin, and thrusting the bellows into Brock's hands left the smithy.

Now Loki, for all his boastful words, was a little bit worried, and to be on the safe side he came to Sindri's smithy to see what was going on there. But Brock did not see him—Loki was not so foolish as to let himself be seen. He turned himself into a gadfly, and settling on Brock's hand, stung him until the pain was



IN THE DWARFS SMITHY

ferent family of dwarfs. When he heard the flattering words of Loki, whom he hated, he stopped and said:

"I do not know what your gifts are, but I know that whatever they are my brother Sindri can make something more wonderful."

"Let us make it a wager," cried Loki. "I will meet you tomorrow in Odin's great hall, and you may bring with you there three things made by your brother to present to Thor and Odin and Frey, and then we shall see what we shall see. And whichever one of us brings the most wonderful gifts shall have the other's head."

almost unendurable. But Brock blew the bellows and blew the bellows and never left off for a minute. When Sindri came back he said "Good brother," and he drew out of the fire a boar with shining bristles of gold.

Next he threw into the fire some gold, and warning Brock once more to be careful never to cease blowing the bellows, he again left the smithy. This time Loki settled on Brock's cheek and stung even more sharply than before, so that the poor little dwarf had to set his teeth hard to endure the pain. But still he never left off blowing the bellows, and when Sindri came back, there was found in

the fire, instead of the lump of gold that had gone in, a heavy ring of gold, carved most beautifully.

"Once more," said Sindri, as he threw a lump of iron into the fire; "and this time be extra careful about the bellows." Brock turned to work bravely, but the gadfly Loki settled just over his eye, and stung him so fiercely that the blood ran down into his eyes so that he could not see what he was doing. The pain would never have made him stop, but he just had to put up his hand and wipe the blood from his eye, and at that moment Sindri entered the room.

"You have spoiled it!" he cried, as he sprang toward the fire; but when he drew out the heavy hammer to which the lump of iron had been changed, he comforted Brock by telling him that it was not entirely spoiled—"only the handle is too short," he added.

"Loki declared," said Brock, "that his gifts were not only beautiful and useful, but that they were magic gifts and could do wonderful things."

Sindri smiled, then whispered something in Brock's ear which made the little dwarf's eyes shine.

The next day he was at Odin's hall promptly at the appointed time, and he stood patiently by while Loki gave his gifts.

"It is even more beautiful than the old hair," declared Thor, as Sif shook out above herself the new golden threads.

"And such a spear!" cried Odin. "No enemy will ever be able to stand against me now."

"But mine is best," said Frey, "for we can all use it. Come," he went on, turning to the crowd which had assembled, "let's go for a ride in this wonderful new ship."

"Wait," cried Brock, "I have something, too, to offer."

"What, more gifts?" exclaimed Odin. "Of course we will wait."

But he looked a little disappointed when Brock put into his hand the heavy gold ring, for he had rings a-plenty, some of them as beautiful as this one.

"It is a magic ring," said Brock, "every ninth night, eight rings as large and heavy as this one will drop from it. That one ring alone would make a person rich."

Then he pulled from his huge sack the golden boar, glittering in the sunlight.

"It is named Gullinbursti," said Brock to Frey, "and it is a magic boar. On his back you can ride through the air as fast as a thought can fly, and even in the darkest night it need never be dark to you, for the bristles of Gullinbursti will give out light as he flits across the sky."

"I like him even better than the ship," said Frey; and Odin, who had been looking at his two gifts in silence, now said:

"And I like the ring better than the magic spear."

Brock grew more and more cheerful, and Loki's frown grew blacker and blacker, but he smiled again when Brock drew out and handed to Thor, the ugly, short-handled hammer. Thor himself looked none too well

pleased. Was the dwarf making fun of him? Hammers of this sort were to be had any day for the asking.

"But it is a magic hammer," exclaimed Brock. "It hits anything at which it is thrown and it never hits in vain. The strongest mountain will split, the strongest giant will die at a stroke of this hammer, and no matter how far it is thrown it will always fly back to your hand."

At the word "giant," Thor's look of displeasure changed. For were not the giants, the huge, ugly frost-giants, his worst enemies? And had he not always, up to this time, tried in vain to overcome them?

"Sif's hair is beautiful," he said, looking at his wife with pride in his eyes, "and the hammer is not beautiful, but I like the hammer better."

"Brock has won! Brock has won!" cried the crowd, who had heard of the wager and were none too fond of Loki, "and he may have Loki's head!"

Brock turned for vengeance on Loki, but Loki had disappeared.

"I gave you the hammer; you will help me to find him," said the dwarf to Thor, and because he hated Loki and was grateful to Brock, Thor soon brought Loki back.

"You may take my head," said Loki, "it is yours by the terms of our wager. But if you touch my neck, or spill one drop of my blood, you will be taking more than belongs to you, and you must die."

"I'm afraid that is right," said Thor, and Brock was in despair.

But at last he decided that if he could not have Loki's head he would at least sew up his lying, boastful mouth, so he borrowed an awl from his brother Sindri, made holes through Loki's lips, and fastened them together with a leather thong.

And so for a while there was peace, because Loki could not make trouble with his tongue. But it was not for long. Loki managed to cut the cord and was soon going about making trouble just as he had always done.

The Story of Arnold Winkelried

There have been brave men in every age and in every country, but there have been few braver than Arnold Winkelried, who was not a king, not a general at the head of his troops but just a poor Swiss peasant.

Over five hundred years ago, the little cantons of Switzerland had banded together and were making a desperate struggle for liberty, for the rulers of Austria, who ruled Switzerland too, oppressed the Swiss people terribly and gave them no rights of any sort.

At last in the summer of 1386, a great battle took place. The Austrian army, led by Duke Leopold, had four thousand horsemen and fourteen hundred foot soldiers, while the Swiss army had only thirteen hundred men altogether.

The Swiss are a brave people and the difference in the strength of the forces did not daunt them, but when they came to the actual conflict it seemed as if there were no way to be-

gin the attack The Austrian army looked like a wall, but a wall which bristled with spear-points Nowhere could the Swiss find or make an opening, and until they could, they knew that they should hurl themselves in vain on their enemies

In the front rank of the Swiss there was one man, Arnold Winkelried, who was even braver than his comrades His quick eye saw the difficulty, his brain told him the one way that it might be overcome, and he was brave enough to take that way, but the thought of his family held him for a time. Could he sacrifice them?

Still the two armies stood facing each other; still the Austrians in their pride looked scornfully at the little Swiss company There should be a break in that solid phalanx! With a cry of "Make way for liberty!" Winkelried sprang forward, spread his arms, and gathering several of the enemies' spears, pressed them into his breast.

His deed was an inspiration to the Swiss, and they pressed forward into the little gap which he had made, and before the close of the day the Austrian army had fled from the field, leaving fourteen hundred dead, and the Swiss had won a complete victory. Five hundred years later, in 1886, a monument was erected on this battlefield in honor of the heroic self-sacrifice of a common Swiss soldier.

It is not to be understood that all historical stories told to children are to be stories of bravery on the battlefield. It is, in fact, true that while such tales stir the blood of young people, they cannot have the same effect that stories of the heroes of peace may have, for very few will ever be called upon to show bravery on a battlefield. However, young children are much more interested in stories which have vigorous action, and it is only as they grow older that they are really interested in the struggle and accomplishments of even the greatest statesmen.

Joseph and His Brothers

Jacob, the patriarch, had many sons; but of them all, Joseph, the youngest, was his favorite. Nor did he attempt to conceal this from the other ten sons. Naturally they were jealous of Joseph, and this jealousy was increased when their father gave to the boy a most wonderful coat—a coat of many colors.

Joseph, though a good boy, was somewhat spoiled by his father and was not always wise in the way he talked to his older brothers. For instance one day he went to them in great glee and said:

"Hear this dream which I have dreamed; Behold, we were binding sheaves in the field, and my sheaf arose and stood upright, and your sheaves bowed down and worshiped it."

This made the brothers very angry, and they cried—

"And do you really believe that you shall reign over us?"

But their anger was no warning to Joseph, and a few days later when he dreamed that the sun and moon and eleven stars bowed down before him, he foolishly told this dream to his father and to his brothers. And his father, seeing the effect it had on his older sons, rebuked Joseph.

"Shall I and thy mother," he said, "and thy brothers indeed come to bow down ourselves to thee to the earth?"

Now Jacob had many sheep, and the ten older sons had gone with them to a fine feeding-ground in Shechem. One day Jacob called Joseph to him and said:

"Go and see whether it is well with your brothers and with the flocks and bring me word."

But when Joseph reached Shechem he found no trace of his brothers. At last, after wandering about, he met a man who told him that the brothers with all of their flocks had gone to Dothan, and there Joseph found them.

As the boy advanced toward them across the field, one of them said scornfully to the others, "Behold the dreamer cometh," and they began to plot in their envy and their hatred how they might put the boy out of the way.

One brother suggested that they kill him and drop his body into a pit and then return to their father, declaring that some wild beast had eaten him. "Then we shall see," he said, "what shall become of some of his dreams." But Reuben, the oldest son, had pity on the boy and advised them not kill him but put him into a deep pit which was near at hand, for Reuben meant when the other brothers were out of the way to save Joseph and send him back to his father.

After they had put the poor boy into the pit, they sat at their meal discussing what they might do with him; and as they talked they saw coming toward them a company of merchants with camels, who were going down into Egypt. One brother, perhaps because he was avaricious, perhaps because he did not want Joseph killed, suggested that they sell the boy to the merchants to be sold again as a slave in Egypt.

This they did, and then, because they feared to tell their father of what they had done, they took Joseph's coat of many colors and dipped it in the blood of a kid and took it to their father. Even now they did not lie to him outright and say, "Your son has been killed," they showed him the coat stained with blood and said, "Can you tell whether this is our brother Joseph's coat?"

And Jacob knew it instantly and said, "It is my son's coat. An evil beast has devoured him."

Meanwhile, Joseph had been carried by the merchants to Egypt and there sold to Potiphar, an officer of Pharaoh the king. And from the very first the young man prospered; for Potiphar found that he could be trusted. His master's wife, however, became angry with him most unjustly and told false tales of him to Potiphar, who in his wrath had him put into prison. But even here Joseph was fortunate.

for the keeper of the prison soon discovered that he was wise and trustworthy, and gave him control over all the other prisoners.

Now, in the prison at this time there were two servants of Pharaoh the king of Egypt—his chief butler and his chief baker.

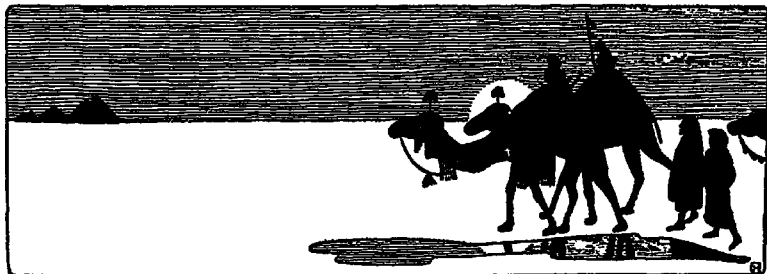
One night each of these men dreamed a dream, and when Joseph visited them in the morning he said, "You look sad. Has anything troubled you?"

And in reply they told him of their dreams and begged him to interpret them for them; for in those days people believed that things which were to happen in the future were foretold by dreams. First the butler told his dream.

"In my dream, behold, a vine was before me; and in the vine were three branches, and it was as though it budded, and her blossoms shot forth; and the clusters thereof brought

And it all happened as Joseph had predicted, for in three days the chief butler was restored to his place, while the chief baker was hanged. But the butler promptly forgot the promise he had made to Joseph to remember him when he was restored to his place, nor did his promise occur to him for two full years. Perhaps he would not have thought of it even then, had not circumstances called it to his mind.

One night Pharaoh the king dreamed two dreams which troubled him strangely. All the magicians of his kingdom were sent for and questioned, but not one of them could give him an explanation of the strange dreams. Now it was that the butler remembered the young man who had so wonderfully interpreted his dream in the prison, and he told Pharaoh of Joseph. Joseph was summoned to appear before the king, and when he stood in the royal presence Pharaoh said.



JOSEPH CARRIED INTO EGYPT

forth ripe grapes. And Pharaoh's cup was in my hand, and I took the grapes and pressed them into Pharaoh's cup, and I gave the cup into Pharaoh's hand."

And Joseph interpreted thus:

"The three branches are three days. Yet within three days shall Pharaoh lift up thine head, and restore thee unto thy place, and thou shalt deliver Pharaoh's cup into his hand, after the former manner when thou wast his butler. But think on me when it shall be well with thee, and shew kindness, I pray thee, unto me and make mention of me unto Pharaoh, and bring me out of this house. For indeed I was stolen away out of the land of the Hebrews, and here also have I done nothing that they should put me into the dungeon."

The baker, pleased that the butler's dream had been so happily interpreted, then told his:

"I also was in my dream, and behold, I had three white baskets on my head, and in the uppermost basket there was of all manner of bakemeats for Pharaoh, and the birds did eat them out of the basket upon my head."

But Joseph's interpretation of this was by no means so happy. He said:

"The three baskets are three days. Yet within three days shall Pharaoh lift up thy head from off thee, and shall hang thee on a tree, and the birds shall eat thy flesh from off thee."

"In my dream I stood upon the bank of a river and there came up out of the river seven kine, fat and well-favored, and they fed in a meadow. And soon there came up out of the river seven other kine, lean and ill-favored, worse than any I have ever seen in the land of Egypt, and the lean kine ate up the fat kine, nor were they, after they had eaten, any less poor and ill-favored. The second dream was very like the first. Seven good, full ears of corn came up on one stalk, and seven withered, thin ears, blasted with the east wind, sprung up after them and devoured them. Both of these dreams I have told to my magicians, but they were unable to interpret them."

Without hesitation Joseph replied:

"The seven good kine and the seven good ears are seven years, the seven thin kine and the seven blasted ears are another seven years. This means that there shall be another seven years of great plenty throughout all the land of Egypt, and then seven years of famine so severe that all the plenty shall be forgotten in the land of Egypt."

"Now the wise thing for the king to do is to choose a discreet man and put him in power over all the land, and let this man see that during the seven good years much food is stored up against the seven years of famine."

Pharaoh was much impressed by the advice of Joseph, and when he came to choose such a

man to set over all his kingdom, he decided that there was no one among his own people whom he could trust as he could this young man. Thus, at the age of thirty, Joseph became practically ruler over Egypt, second in rank only to the king.

Everything happened as the dreams had foretold, and during the seven years of plenty Joseph and his officers were very busy getting food into the storehouses. Thus when the years of famine did come there was food for all who came to Joseph to buy.

Now it was not only in Egypt that the famine was severe, all the neighboring countries were suffering, and men from all countries came into Egypt to Joseph to buy corn. And

they told him the truth about themselves—that they were all sons of one father and that they had one young brother at home in Canaan, and had had another. We can imagine Joseph's feelings when they said, "One brother is not."

Finally Joseph declared that he would sell them corn and allow them to go back to their own country only if one of them remained as a pledge that the other nine would return and bring with them their brother Benjamin. Simeon was the one chosen to remain, and the others departed without him, with their beasts of burden carrying sacks full of grain.

Now Joseph had commanded his servants to place in the sacks of grain the money which



JOSEPH MEETS HIS FATHER

among those who came were the ten brothers of Joseph. The youngest brother, the child Benjamin, they left with their father in Canaan, because the old man was so devoted to the child that he could scarce live away from him.

When the ten brothers of Joseph appeared before him, he knew them instantly in spite of the years that had passed. But they did not recognize, in the splendidly garbed favorite of the king, the brother whom they had sold, and who they imagined had died long since. To test them Joseph spoke to them roughly and even accused them of being spies, but

the brothers had brought with them to pay for the grain. Thus when they reached home they found that they had not only food, but all of their money.

Jacob their father, was much distressed when he heard that they had promised to take Benjamin down to Egypt with them, and cried out to them:

"You have bereaved me of my children. Joseph is not and Simeon is not and you will take Benjamin away." And for a long time he refused to let them return to Egypt.

At length, however, the famine became so severe that it was absolutely necessary that

they should in some way obtain more grain, and finally Jacob consented to allow Benjamin to go with them, Judah, one of the older brothers, pledging his own life that the boy should return unharmed.

When the brothers with the young Benjamin appeared before Joseph he was strangely moved, and he commanded that a feast be prepared for them in his own house. Joseph ate by himself, the Egyptians by themselves and the brothers by themselves, as the law of the Egyptians forbade them to eat with the Hebrews.

When the meal was over, Joseph commanded his servants to fill the brothers' sacks with grain and again to place each one's money in the mouth of his sack. In addition to this he ordered that his own silver cup be placed in Benjamin's sack.

The next morning when the Hebrews had gone but a little distance from the city Joseph's steward ran after them and overtook them and cried:

"Why have you repaid my master with evil when he did you nothing but good? One of you has stolen his silver cup."

The brothers protested that they knew nothing of the cup and declared that if it should be found upon any one of them that one should die and the rest should return as servants to Joseph. But when the search was made, the cup was found in Benjamin's sack.

Sadly the little procession which had started out so joyously turned and went back to the palace of Joseph. They could not understand what had happened; they felt certain that Benjamin had not taken the cup, but how could they prove this? And they were responsible to the boy's father for his safety.

Joseph, when he met them, pretended to be very severe, but when Judah declared that they were all ready to be servants of Joseph, Joseph refused saying:

"You may all go in peace, except the one in whose sack the cup was found. He shall be my servant." Then Judah stepped out before the rest of the brothers and told Joseph how he had become surety to his father for the boy, and begged Joseph to allow him to remain as bondman to let the boy go back to his father.

"For how," he concluded, "shall I go up to my father and the lad be not with me?"

At this Joseph could restrain himself no longer. Sending all his servants and officers from the room, he cried:

"I am Joseph. Does my father yet live?"

Of course the brothers were afraid of his vengeance, but he comforted them and forgave them, assuring them that they had done him no harm, but only good, by selling him into Egypt.

"For God," he declared, "did send me before you to preserve life."

The joy and relief of the brothers of Joseph were beyond bounds and Joseph himself was no less happy. Even Pharaoh, the king, when he heard that Joseph's brothers had come, was pleased, and sent word that they were to return to Canaan for their father and their

households, and that they were then all to come down into Egypt, where he would allot to them for their homes the best land in the kingdom.

Joyfully the brothers returned home and told their father the wonderful story, which the old man could not at first believe. When he was at last convinced, he exclaimed:

"It is enough! Joseph my son is yet alive. I will go and see him before I die."

With their families and their servants, their flocks and their herds and their beasts of burden, the father and brothers of Joseph journeyed down into Egypt. They found that Pharaoh was as good as his word. He gave them land in plenty and they settled down in the strange land which yet did not seem strange to them because Joseph was ruler over all of it.

STOSS, VERT (?1440-1533), a German sculptor, considered the greatest wood carver of Germany. He was born at Nuremberg, and spent his life there and at Cracow. Owing to his eccentric character he had many quarrels with the city authorities of Nuremberg, and he was several times imprisoned. He died at an old age, totally blind. Most of his works are religious and show deep spiritual feeling, a quality which was lacking in other artists of his time. His most famous wood carvings include the high altar in the Church of Saint Mary's, Cracow, and *The Angel's Salutation* in the Church of Saint Lawrence, Nuremberg. A relief representing the *Coronation of the Virgin* is in the Germanic Museum of Nuremberg. His best sculpture is *The Last Supper*.

STOVE, a piece of domestic furniture consisting of a box made of iron, brick or tile in which fuel is burned to heat rooms or houses or for cooking. The first stoves, made of brick, stone or earthenware, were very large. Iron stoves were first made in France early in the eighteenth century. From there they were introduced into England about 1716, and were adapted to the use of coal. In 1745 Benjamin invented a stove with a downward draft that caused an even distribution of heat over the sides. This was a great improvement over any stove that had preceded it, and from it developed the modern stove heater. Stoves did not come into general use in the United States until 1825. Prior to that time, dwelling houses were heated chiefly with open fireplaces. Country churches were not heated, but women carried foot stoves to church. These were small tin or sheet iron boxes, with perforated sides, enclosed in wooden cases. Just before the start to church the stove was filled with burning coals.

The advantage of the modern stove over the fireplace is its greater heating capacity. Whereas the best fireplaces utilize only about fifteen per cent of the heating power of the fuel, stoves make available from forty to sixty per cent.

There are now many designs of stoves upon the market, intended for burning wood, coal, coke, kerosene, gasoline, gas or electricity. Gas stoves are in general use in cities for cooking, while gasoline and kerosene stoves have for years been popular in isolated communities.

STOWE, HARRIET ELIZABETH BEECHER (1811-1896), an American novelist, best known as the author of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. This book, published in 1852, had perhaps a greater influence than any other piece of fiction ever written, was translated into more than twenty languages and had an unprecedented sale. Though loose in construction and marred by signs of hasty composition, *Uncle Tom's Cabin* is nevertheless a strong book, because it tells vividly a story of slavery. It was dramatized shortly after its publication and has had wonderful popularity as a play.

Mrs. Stowe, sister of Henry Ward Beecher, was born at Litchfield, Conn., where her early life was spent. Her family moved in 1832 to Cincinnati, and four years later she was married to Rev. Calvin E. Stowe of that city. Her knowledge of the condition of the slaves was gained by visits to slave states and possibly by encounters with escaping slaves. *Uncle Tom's Cabin* was by no means her only work, but the others are practically unnoticed, because of the success of the one. Among the others may be mentioned *The Minister's Wooing*, *Oldtown Folks*, *Dred* and *My Wife and I*.

STRABISMUS, *stra bis'mus*. See SQUINTING.

STRABO (about 64 B. C.-about A. D. 19), a Greek geographer and historian, a native of Pontus and a resident of Rome after his thirty-fifth year. His earliest writing was his *History*, of which but a few fragments remain. His great work, however, a geography, in seventeen books, has been preserved entire, with the exception of the seventh book, of which there is only an epitome. The first two books are introductory, the next eight treat of Europe, the six following treat of Asia and the last discusses Africa. This is the most important geographical work that has come down from antiquity.

STRADIVARIUS, *strah de vah'reus*, ANTONIO (1644-1737), a celebrated violin maker, born in Cremona, Italy. He was a pupil of Nicolo Amati, in whose employment he remained until 1700, when he began making violins on his own account. It was he who settled the typical pattern of the Cremona violin, and his instruments, for tone and finish, have never been excelled.

STRAFFORD, THOMAS WENTWORTH, Earl of (1593-1641), an English statesman. He sat in Parliament for Yorkshire for a number of years and in the first Parliament of Charles I strongly opposed the royal aggressions. In 1628, he supported the Petition of Right. As he felt, however, that Parliament was going too far in its opposition to the king, he went over to the king's side, was made baron, then viscount and president of the Council of the North and privy councillor. In 1633 he went to Ireland as lord deputy and attempted to impress his system of "thorough," by which he meant thorough devotion to the interests of the king. Although Ireland was commercially and industrially the better for his rule, the despotism employed in putting his system into practice made him exceedingly unpopular.

After his return to England in 1639 Wentworth was made Earl of Strafford and became even more powerful in the king's council. When the Scots rebelled against the king, Strafford went to Ireland to raise an army, to help put down the insurrection, and this act was later used against him in his impeachment. One of the first acts of the Long Parliament was the impeachment of Strafford. It became plain that the House of Lords was not likely to render judgment against him, and the Commons were therefore obliged to change their proceedings to a bill of attainder. This was passed by both houses, and Charles I, despite the fact that he had promised that Strafford should come to no harm, was forced to sign it. Strafford was beheaded in May, 1641.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, a British colonial settlement comprising the southern part of the Malay Peninsula and some of the adjacent islands. It includes the settlements of Singapore Island, Penang and Malacca, on the peninsula. The total area is about 1,600 square miles. The population was 1,059,000 in 1934; of these 10,000 were whites, and remainder Chinese, Malays and natives of India. The chief ports

are Singapore, on the island of the same name, and Georgetown, on the island of Penang. Through them pass quantities of coffee, rubber, gum, spices, tin and rattan. Singapore (which see) is the capital.

STRAMONIUM, also called **JIMSON WEED** and **STINK WEED**, a poisonous herb of the nightshade family, which grows to the height of from three to five feet. It has an erect stem, numerous branches, large, triangular leaves, and long, fringed, trumpet-shaped white flowers. Green burs enclose small, dark, wrinkled seeds. Both leaves and seeds are used in making the drug stramonium, which is similar to belladonna and is used to relieve asthma. See **NIGHTSHADE**.

STRASBOURG; *stras boor'*, FRANCE, the capital of Alsace-Lorraine, is situated on the Ill River, 300 miles east by south of Paris and about 370 miles southwest of Berlin. It is one of the most strongly fortified towns in the world, and is practically encircled by forts and ramparts. For centuries the city has been noted for its cathedral, the oldest part of which dates from the beginning of the eleventh century, and which was completed in the fifteenth. Within the church is the famous Strassburg clock (which see). Other buildings of note are the Church of Saint Thomas; the municipal museum of art, which was formerly an episcopal palace, and the imperial palace. The leading educational institution is the University of Strassburg. Its library contains over 1,000,000 volumes, and in addition there is a municipal library of over 115,000 volumes. The city is connected with the Rhine by canals, and it also has communication with a number of the waterways of France. The industrial establishments include tobacco and cigar factories, organ works, machine shops, printing houses, tanneries and foundries.

Strassburg is supposed to have been founded by the Romans, who named it *Argentoratum*. In the sixth century its name was changed to Strassburg, and in the beginning of the tenth century it came under the control of the German emperors. It was united with France in 1861, but at the close of the Franco-German War, along with Alsace-Lorraine it became a part of the German Empire. In 1918 it again reverted to France (see **WORLD WAR**). Population, 1931, 181,465.

STRASBOURG CLOCK, the famous so-called "tower" clock in the Strassburg Cathed-

ral. The present one is the third to acquire fame. The first was built in 1352; the second in 1570. The last, made early in the nineteenth century, is thirty feet high, and fifteen feet wide at the base. At the bottom is a large globe of the heavens, which shows the course of the stars and the passing of each important one across the meridian of Strassburg. Behind this globe is a calendar, which shows the day of the month and the occurrence of all the religious festivals. Next above the dial is a planetarium, and above this is a globe which shows the phases of the moon. On the next floor are several figures, which strike the quarter hours. These represent the different periods of life—infancy, youth, old age and death. Above all is a figure of Christ. At noon on each day, the twelve apostles pass before him in procession, and at the same time a cock appears and crows three times. See **STRASBOURG**.

STRATEGY, *strat'e ji*, the art of planning a military movement in a way to give an army every possible advantage over the enemy. It is to be distinguished from *tactics*, which have to do with the actual business of fighting. When in the summer of 1914 the Germans lured the Russian army into the marshy region of the Masurian Lakes in Northern Poland, they executed a strategic campaign which resulted in one of their notable victories. This was one of the few conspicuous strategic feats of the World War. In fact, in modern warfare the opportunities for the exercise of strategy are rare. Formerly, when wars consisted of campaigns and when armies played hide and seek chasing each other over extensive areas of territory and engaging in occasional battles, success depended as much on strategy as upon man power and equipment. To-day it is becoming a less important factor. When opposing armies meet along a front hundreds of miles in extent they come to a standstill. The points of advantage are seen from both sides, and the efforts to gain them are tactical rather than strategic.

STRATFORD, ONT., the county seat of Perth County, situated on the Avon River and on six lines of the Canadian National Ry., eighty-eight miles west of Toronto. It is quite an important industrial center, having about sixty manufacturing enterprises, among them being foundries and machine shops, railroad shops, wire fence works, chemical works, woolen factories, hosiery fac-

tozies, and a boot and shoe factory. Population, 1921, 16,064, 1931, 17,742.

STRATFORD-UPON-AVON, ENGLAND, a municipal borough, famous as the birthplace of Shakespeare, situated eight miles southwest of Warwick. The town is characterized by broad streets and old wooden houses. It contains the parish church, in which Shakespeare lies buried, and the house in which he was born, and in which are preserved portraits, early editions and other objects of interest related to the poet. The Shakespeare Memorial Building, including a theater, the old Guild Hall and the Shakespeare Monument, are other objects of interest. Anne Hathaway's cottage is about one mile west of the town. Population, 1931, 11,616.

STRATHCONA AND MOUNT ROYAL, DONALD ALEXANDER SMITH, Baron (1820-1914), a Canadian statesman and financier, was born at Forres, Scotland. In 1838 he was appointed a junior clerk in the Hudson's Bay Company. For thirteen years he was stationed at Hamilton Inlet, Labrador; here, besides mastering the fur trade, he spent much of his time in introducing improvements into the conditions of life, being the first to



LORD STRATHCONA

prove that potatoes could be grown there with success. Then for ten years he was on Hudson Bay, where he rose to be a chief trader and later chief factor; and in 1868 he became resident governor at Montreal. During the disorders in 1870 in the Red River settlements he used his influence in settling the disputes without bloodshed. He was elected to the first legislative assembly of the new province of Manitoba and then to the House of Commons. In Parliament he was prominent for his independence and his advocacy of railroad expansion. Together with his cousin, Lord Mount Stephen, he was one of the organizers of the present Canadian Pacific Railway, and it is largely due to his energy and ability that the project was completed. Except from 1882 to 1887 he continued to sit in Parliament until 1896, when he succeeded Sir Charles Tupper as

high commissioner in London. Smith was raised to the peerage in 1897. He received numerous honorary degrees from colleges and universities and for many years was chancellor of Aberdeen and McGill universities.

STRATIFIED ROCKS, rocks which are composed of several layers, or *strata*, formed by the slow hardening of mud. When the earth was young these strata lay horizontally, but with the wrinkling of the crust the strata became folded, and in some places they have cropped out and become visible. Strata that do not lie horizontally are said to *dip*, and the angle of inclination is called the *angle of the dip*. See DIP.

STRATOSPHERE, *strat'oh sfeeer* (preferred), or *strat'o sfeeer*, the upper layer of the earth's atmosphere, beginning at the upper reaches of the troposphere, which is the layer that rests its base upon the earth. The stratosphere begins about seven miles above the ground, in temperate zones; at the equator it is about nine miles, and is less than three, it is believed, at the poles. Ascensions made into the upper air prove that the temperature of the stratosphere varies little from -68°F , for radiation and absorption of the sun's rays are there about equal. See TROPOSPHERE.

Flight into the stratosphere is yet a hazardous adventure, and years may pass before it may be made reasonably safe, though this is not the general belief. Men on such a voyage now ride in a great, airtight spherical ball suspended below a monster balloon. They carry with them oxygen for respiration and wear special clothing for protection from the cold, on the outside of the balloon are instruments for observation and recording. The first two stratosphere flights were made by Prof. Auguste Piccard, a Belgian, in 1931 and 1932, in Europe; he ascended 51,458 feet and 52,153 feet. Three Russians reached a height of 72,176 feet in 1934. Two American army officers, Stevens and Anderson, ascended in 1935 to the highest point ever reached—72,395 feet; previously Officers Settle and Fordney (1933) had reached 61,237 feet. (See illustration, article BALLOON.)

The secrets of the stratosphere, gradually unfolding with respect to its lighter air pressure, winds, etc., are producing in the minds of the air-minded the conviction that in the distant future long-distant flights will be at great heights, at tremendous speed in ships

specially designed Wiley Post, shortly before his death in Alaska, endeavored to fly from Los Angeles to New York through the stratosphere. Two attempts were made, but both failed because of motor trouble.

STRAUSS, JOHANN (1825-1899), an Austrian composer known as the "Waltz King." He was born at Vienna, the son of Johann Strauss, also a well-known composer of waltz music. At the age of nineteen he began conducting a small restaurant orchestra, and afterwards, with a larger orchestra, he toured Europe, everywhere winning applause for his artistic dance music. In 1855 he conducted summer concerts at the Russian capital, and in 1863 became conductor of the Russian court balls. He wrote more than four hundred waltzes, many of them world-famous, especially *The Beautiful Blue Danube*, *Artist's Life* and *Wine, Woman and Song*.

STRAUSS, RICHARD (1864-), a German composer and conductor, the most distinguished representative of the school of music founded by Richard Wagner. He was born at Munich, and with extraordinary precocity, at the age of six wrote music good enough to publish. While still in his teens he wrote *Symphony in D Minor* as well as numerous songs and instrumental pieces, gaining a wide popularity. He is especially noted for his descriptive pieces, or "tone poems," including *Till Eulenspiegel*, *Don Quixote* and *Domestic Symphony*, in which melody is sacrificed for the sake of realistic effect. His operas *Elektra* and *Salome* have provoked much criticism because of their stark realism. Of all the songs written in the last few decades none are more popular than those of Strauss. They are rich in melody, sentiment and color.

STRAWBERRY, *straw'ber-i*, a small plant of the rose family which produces a delicious red fruit also called strawberry. In the technical sense, the strawberry cannot be classified as a berry, for, unlike the currant and the gooseberry, it has no outer skin enclosing pulp and seed, the tiny yellow seeds lying in little pits on the surface. It is heart-shaped and juicy, with a delicate perfume and rich flavor. It is a favorite fruit in many countries and is widely cultivated. The plant is hardy, and in America can be made to grow and produce from Florida to Alaska, though it thrives best in the middle latitudes, at about the fortieth parallel. Maryland is the foremost strawberry-producing state,

New Jersey, New York, California, Missouri and Michigan following in the order named. Ontario, producing eleven million quarts annually, compares not unfavorably with Michigan.

The cultivation of the strawberry is not difficult, if a few essentials are regarded. The plants, which are small, seldom more than five inches high, send out runners or vines, which creep along the ground and at intervals take root. The young plants obtained from the rooted runners are the most productive. They are transplanted in late autumn or spring in rows or hills three or four feet apart, with fifteen inches separating the plants. As they grow they send out runners, which may be cut off or allowed to mat, the former treatment resulting in less numerous berries but larger ones. The richer the soil the better, and it should have been under cultivation at least two seasons. Success with strawberries means crop rotation, and when the bearing season is over the beds should be plowed under and planted to something else for two or three years before strawberries are again planted.

When the plants are set out in the fall they should be mulched with straw. This should be raked between the rows but left around the plants, as it keeps the berries off the ground. To prepare soil for spring planting, drain thoroughly and cover with manure. In the spring rake off all trash and work the soil until it is light to a depth of 4 or 5 inches. A good fertilizer, such as nitrate of soda, applied just before the blossoming, increases the crop. The plants must have a great deal of moisture, and sometimes may require irrigation.

STREET RAILWAY. The street railway is an American idea, although it was developed from the English tramway. Throughout Europe street railways are called *trams*. The first street railway was laid in New York City, from the Bowery to Harlem, in 1831 and 1832. The car used was an old-fashioned stagecoach, and it was hauled by horses. Afterwards steam power was tried, but it was not successful, and the horses were reinstated. The success of this line led to the construction of others in New York and other cities, and before 1860 street railways were common in all large cities of the United States. Since that time they have been extended throughout Europe, and are found in many cities of the Orient.

For a long time horses were the only motive power used in operating the cars. Several attempts to use steam were made, but none was successful. In 1873 the cable as a motive power was introduced in San Francisco. An endless cable was wound around a drum by a stationary engine; the cable passed under the middle of the car track, and the motor car, called the *grip car*, was attached to it by a grappling device operated by levers. Cable cars were introduced in several large cities, and were successful, but the invention of an electric motor that could be successfully used on street cars soon caused all cable systems to be replaced by electric cars, and now electricity is practically the only power used in operating street railways. See ELECTRIC RAILWAY.

STRENGTH OF MATERIAL, the term used to express the resistance offered by any building material to a force that tends to change its shape. Materials are subject to several kinds of stress, the chief of which are the stress of direct pull, or *tensile stress*; the stress of pushing together, or *compressive stress*; the stress of tending to slide on parallel surfaces, or *shearing stress*; and the *twisting*, or *torsion stress*, illustrated by a shaft to which a crank is attached. All other forms of strain are combinations of these.

Materials vary greatly in their strength, and different samples of the same material, as white pine, may show a marked variation in strength. For this reason engineers re-

countries is the square inch (in countries where the metric system is in use, the square centimeter) is employed in making the test. For instance, a rod of oak one inch square has a tensile stress of 12,000 pounds, and one of white pine a stress of 8,000 pounds. The stress on this area is called the *unit of stress*. The *ultimate strength* of the material is the unit of stress reached just before rupture takes place. The ultimate strength is from two to four times as great as the stress of the unit before it begins to change form.

To find the tensile strength of any material a specimen one inch square and eight inches long is pulled apart. The load is applied gradually and each addition to the load produces a proportionate increase in length in the specimen until a point is reached where the elongation increases more rapidly than the load. The stress at this point is called the *elastic limit* of the material.

Wrought iron and steel offer the greatest resistance to tensile strains; the strength of wood in this direction varies according to its seasoning and specific gravity. The heavier the wood is, in general, the stronger it is. The transverse strength of beams is determined largely by their elasticity. The property varies greatly in different materials. Wood has a greater elastic range of action than iron or steel bars and it consequently sinks or deflects to a greater degree under a given weight. Any strain beyond the *elastic limit* entails fracture. Increased stiffness or transverse resistance of beams is rapidly ob-

MATERIAL	TENSILE STRENGTH		CRUSHING STRENGTH		SHEARING STRENGTH	
	ULTIMATE	ELASTIC	ULTIMATE	ELASTIC	ULTIMATE	ELASTIC
Cast iron.. (from	30,500	Indefinite	120,000	Indefinite	12,000	Indefinite
to	10,800	Indefinite	50,000	Indefinite	8,700	Indefinite
Wrought (from	67,000	30,000	50,000	30,000	49,000	25,000
iron bars (to	33,500	(average)	(average)	(average)	22,400	(average)
Steel plates (from	65,000	42,000	..	38,000	50,000	..
to	120,000	67,000	..	71,000	53,000	..
Steel boiler plates	66,000	36,000	56,000	..
Rivet steel.	65,000	46,000	55,800	..
Copper, rolled	..	5,600	..	4,000	..	3,000
plates	31,000
Copper, annealed
wire	45,000
Brass	17,500
(to	29,000
Cast zinc	7,500	3,200

quire that the material they are to use in any large structure be carefully tested before it is accepted. Most ingenious machines for testing the strength of materials have been constructed, and the strain applied is that to which the material will be most subjected. A given unit, which in English-speaking

tained with an increase of depth of the beam. With the exception of wood, materials offer a greater resistance to a crushing force than to a tensile strain. Cast iron is superior to wrought iron in this respect and is consequently much employed in the construction of foundations. Torsional stress tries the

solidity and tenacity of metals more than any other kind of stress. But the torsional strength of shafts increases very rapidly as the diameter is enlarged. The distribution of material in hollow forms conduces to the greatest strength and stiffness, in combination with the minimum consumption of material. A familiar instance of the hollow construction is the stem of grasses, and especially the bamboo, while another example is that of the hollow bones of animals.

The table from Unwin, on page 3450, is valuable for reference.

STRIKE, an action taken by workmen in any branch of industry when they cease from work, with the object of compelling their employers to accede to certain demands made by them. The strike is distinguished from a *lockout*, which is the retaliatory measure adopted by employers to resist such demands by stopping the operation of their plants and throwing their workmen out of employment.

As an instrument of protest, a strike is legal; no free man can be compelled against his will to labor. It is natural that men on strike shall place some of their number on guard at the place of employment to urge those who might apply for work to refrain from doing so. The courts have held this so-called "picketing" to be legal, if it is peaceably conducted. In most strikes involving large numbers of men, unprincipled agitators, usually outsiders, possibly Communists, undertake to create rioting, in the hope that public feeling against dissenting employers may arise, and thus weaken the present social system.

STRINDBERG, AUGUST (1849-1912), one of the foremost Swedish writers of his time, the author of dramas, novels, lectures and numerous other literary forms in which he showed himself in turn romanticist, naturalist, mystic and skeptic. Strindberg was born at Stockholm, the son of an obscure tradesman and a barmaid. He attended the University of Upsala, and after trying his hand at school teaching, tutoring and journalism, he procured a post in the Royal Library, Stockholm. He was a zealous supporter of the theory that woman is inferior to man, mentally and morally as well as physically. He was three times married and three times divorced. His first important play, *Master Olof*, was produced in 1878. This was followed by *The Red Room*, *The Bondswoman's Son*, *The Author*, *A Fool's Confession* (auto-

biographic), *Inferno* and *Legends*. *The Natives of Hemso* is a brilliant novel of Swedish peasant life. *Utopias Realized* is a defense of socialism. Notable among his plays are *Gustavus Adolphus*, *The Father* and *Lucky Pehr*.

STRONTIUM, *strow'she um*, a yellowish metallic element, first observed in the lead mines of Strontium, Argyllshire, Scotland, and separated from its compounds by Davy in 1808. Though less abundant than barium, it occurs in nature in similar forms of combination. It is malleable and ductile, and burns with a crimson flame when heated in air. Strontium is used in extracting beet sugar. The nitrate made from it is used in the manufacture of fireworks.

STRYCHNINE, *stri'k'nin*, a poisonous drug obtained from the seeds of *nux vomica* and certain other plants. It is prepared in the form of crystals, which are odorless but intensely bitter. One-eighth of a grain of strychnine will kill a large dog; three-eighths of a grain will produce spasms in man. A half grain is sometimes fatal to man, a whole grain almost always so. The symptoms of strychnine poisoning are difficulty in breathing, followed by twitching of the limbs and convulsions, in which the body becomes rigid and is often bent strongly backward. In very small doses—from one-fifteenth to one-fiftieth of a grain—strychnine is valuable as a tonic.

STRYCHNOS, *stri'k'nos*, the botanical name of a genus of shrubs or trees, which are found principally in the tropical parts of Asia and America. The plants have leathery leaves and dense clusters of white, valve-shaped flowers. Some of the most powerful drugs are produced from plants of the genus, among them strychnine and *nux vomica* (which see).

STUART, or **STEWART**, a royal family of England and Scotland. The founder of the house seems to have been a Norman baron named Fitzdald, a follower of William the Conqueror, whose second son, Walter, entered the service of David I of Scotland and became steward of the royal household. The name of the office was adopted by the family as a surname. Walter obtained large grants of land from David James, the fifth steward, was chosen as one of the regents, on the death of Alexander III, and died in the service of Bruce in 1309. His son, Walter, the sixth steward, married Marjory, daughter of

King Robert I, a union which secured to his family the crown of Scotland in the event of the extinction of the royal line. Walter died in 1326 and was succeeded by his son Robert, who, on the death of David II without issue succeeded to the crown as Robert II. With James VI of Scotland, son of Mary Queen of Scots, the Stuart family succeeded to the throne of England. (For its history subsequent to this time see JAMES I; CHARLES I; CHARLES II; JAMES II; MARY II; ANNE.) James II was driven from the throne of England, and for years there was a struggle to replace the Stuarts on the throne. Mary of Modena, second wife of James II of England, gave birth to James Edward, commonly called the Old Pretender (see STUART, JAMES EDWARD). In 1715 an unsuccessful attempt was made by the Jacobites, or Stuart party, to set this prince on the throne of his ancestors by force of arms. He married a granddaughter of John Sobieski, king of Poland, by whom he had two sons, Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, and Henry Benedict Maria Clement, who became a cardinal in 1747.

STUART, CHARLES EDWARD, called *The Young Pretender* (1720-1788), eldest son of James Edward Stuart, the Old Pretender. He was promised aid by France in an invasion of Great Britain, and accordingly in 1745 he landed in Scotland. With the help of the Scotch Highlanders, who joined him promptly, he won a victory over the royal forces, but when he entered England he found little support and was finally obliged to retreat without attempting to enter London. At Culloden in 1746, he was completely defeated by the Duke of Cumberland, and for five months he remained hidden in various places in the Scotch Highlands and in the Hebrides, protected by the loyalty of the Scotch. He finally escaped to the Continent, where he passed the remainder of his life.

STUART, GILBERT (1755-1828), an American painter, noted for his portraits of famous Americans. He was born in Narragansett, R. I. In 1775 he went to London, where he had his first instruction under good masters. There he remained until 1792, and during the last part of his stay his genius was fully recognized. In 1795 he painted the first of about forty portraits of Washington on which, more than on any of his other work, his fame rests. These portraits are too much idealized to be faithful likenesses

of the first President, but they represent him as the world likes to think of him and so are the most popular of all Washington portraits. Among Stuart's other sitters were John Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, John Jay, John Jacob Astor, William Ellery Channing and Josiah Quincy. See WASHINGTON, GEORGE, *portrait*.

STUART, JAMES EDWARD, called *Chevalier Saint George*, or *The Old Pretender* (1688-1766), son of James II of England and Mary of Modena, his second wife. He was born a short time before his father was deposed; in fact, his birth and the fear that on his accession England would become permanently a Catholic country, had much to do with the overthrow of James. In 1715 an unsuccessful attempt was made by the Jacobites to secure the throne for him. The remainder of his life was spent mostly in Rome. His wife was a granddaughter of John Sobieski of Poland.

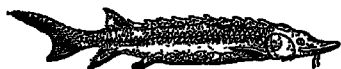
STUART, JAMES EWELL BROWN (1833-1864), an American general, born in Patrick County, Va. He was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1854 and was promoted rapidly in the army. When Virginia seceded, he was made lieutenant-colonel of Virginia troops, and commanded the Confederate cavalry in the first Battle of Bull Run. Later in the same year he became a brigadier-general. In June, 1862, he conducted a daring reconnaissance of McClellan's army on the Chickahominy, fought at the second Battle of Bull Run, led the advance of Jackson's Maryland invasion and fought at South Mountain, Antietam and Fredericksburg. After the fall of Stonewall Jackson, Stuart succeeded to the temporary command of Jackson's corps at Chancellorsville. In the campaign of 1864 he was mortally wounded at Yellow Tavern, near Richmond, where he attempted to halt Sheridan.

STUART, MARY. See MARY STUART.

STUART, RUTH MCENERY (1856-1917), an American story writer, born in Avoyelles parish, La., and educated at Tulane University. She married Alfred O. Stuart, a cotton planter, in 1879, and after 1885 made her home in New York. The original humor of her negro sketches gave them a foremost place among stories of their kind. Her writings include *George Washington Jones*, *The Story of Babette*, *The Women's Exchange*, *Sonny*, *The River's Children*, *Amity's Silver Wedding* and *Sonny's Father*.

STUCCO, a fine plaster, used as a coating for walls, to give them a finished surface. The stucco used for interior decorations is made of pulverized white marble, mixed with water, or of calcined gypsum or plaster of Paris, mixed with glue. That used for external purposes is of a coarser kind prepared with cement. A cheap plaster used for the outside of temporary buildings is called *staff*. The Greeks and Romans used stucco to a great extent, both for internal and external decoration in their buildings, often moulding it into relief designs for friezes and such details.

STURGEON, *stur'jun*, a group of fishes comprising numerous species, found in both fresh and salt waters of the north temperate zone. Some of them are very large, being



STURGEON

ten feet long and weighing approximately 500 pounds. The body is long and slender, terminating in a forked tail, and covered with rows of bony plates. The mouth is comparatively small, funnel-shaped and toothless, and the food, consisting of small marine animals and vegetable growths, is sucked in whole through the thick lips under the long, pointed snout.

The sturgeon is important in the fishing industry. The flesh, which is well flavored, is usually smoked for the market; the eggs are used in the preparation of caviar, and the bladder of the Russian sturgeon is used in making isinglass. Of the numerous species, one of the most familiar is the *common sturgeon*, found in European waters and along the Atlantic coast of North America from Maine to South Carolina. These fish ascend streams in the spawning season and are easily caught, consequently they are not so numerous as formerly. Other species are the *lake sturgeon* of the Great Lakes and Middle West streams; the *white sturgeon* of the Pacific coast of America, the *Russian sterlet* and the *Russian beluga*, the last an enormous fish sometimes weighing 3,000 pounds.

STURM, *stoorm*, JOHANNES (1507-1539), a celebrated educator, born at Schleiden, Prussia. He began teaching at Louvain, afterwards went to Paris, and was then appointed director of the gymnasium at Strassburg, which position he occupied for forty

years. It was in connection with this school that Sturm gained his wide reputation as an educator and reformer. He organized the gymnasium into twelve classes, or grades, extending from the lowest primary to the college, and each of these classes had the work so planned that it prepared for the one next higher. His methods of teaching were clear, practical and forceful, and his course of study was so well planned that the pupils in his school made remarkable progress. The work attracted the attention of educators in every country of Europe, and from Germany the system was transferred to England and was the basis of organization of such schools as Eton and Rugby. From England Sturm's influence extended to America. He is justly considered the originator of what has developed into the graded school system.

STUTTGART, *stoot'gahrt*, GERMANY, the capital of the former kingdom of Württemberg, is situated near the left bank of the Neckar, 115 miles northwest of Munich and thirty-eight miles southeast of Carlsruhe. The surrounding country is exceptionally beautiful, and the city is noted for its broad streets, spacious squares and fine buildings. The most noted structures are the former palace of the king; the old palace, dating from the sixteenth century; the royal library, which has over 400,000 volumes; the Stiftskirche, which dates from the twelfth century, and a Jewish synagogue. The city buildings consist of the industrial museum, the townhall, the hall for the choral society, the art museum, the palace of justice and the polytechnic institute. The educational institutions include a conservatory of music



an academy of fine arts, a veterinary college and a cabinet of natural history. Among the leading industries are the manufactures of textiles, chemicals, furniture, paper, pianos and chocolate. The city is, next to Leipzig, the greatest center of the German book trade. **PETER STUYVESANT** Population, 1933, 416,522

STUYVESANT, *stiv'esant*, PETER (1592-1672), a Dutch governor of New Netherlands

(New York), was born in Holland. In 1647 he was made director-general of the colony of the New Netherlands, a position he held until 1664, displaying noteworthy ability and energy in organization and administration. In 1664 the colony fell into the hands of the English and became known as New York. Stuyvesant went to Holland the next year, but soon returned and passed the rest of his life on his farm, called Bouwerij, from which the present Bowery in the city of New York is named.

STYPTIC, *stop'ing*, any substance used in surgery to check the flow of blood from a surface or an orifice. The principal styptics are tannic acid, alum, copper, salts of iron and zinc.

STYX, in Greek and Roman mythology, the name of a river of the lower world, over which the dead were ferried by Charon. Styx was also a rivulet in Arcadia, the water of which was considered poisonous.

SUBMARINE, the boat that Sir Percy Scott of the British navy said would eliminate the battleship, is a boat that travels under water. Before the World War the submarine had received but little consideration, although a few of these boats formed a part of the navies of the principal nations. But within two years from the beginning of the war, the submarine was regarded as the greatest terror of the seas and one of the decisive factors in the conflict.

General Description. A submarine is a steel shell resembling in shape a huge cigar. When floating at the surface it shows an oval back that rises about two to nearly four feet above the water. Modern submarines are divided into two classes, called coastal and fleet submarines. The general plan of construction is the same for each class, but the fleet submarines are much larger. Coastal submarines are designed for coast defense and are from 200 to 300 feet long, and from fifteen to twenty-five feet beam. When submerged they displace a quantity of water weighing from 600 to 1,000 tons. Fleet submarines are designed for longer voyages. They vary in length from 300 to 450 feet, and have a displacement when submerged of 1,500 to 3,600 tons.

The shell is made of steel plates riveted to a strong steel frame. In the bottom of the boat are a number of compartments which are filled with water when the boat is to submerge. A conning tower rises from the center

of the boat to a height of four or more feet. Such a tower is provided with windows of thick glass, and serves as the bridge for operating the boat. A steering rudder is attached to the stern, and dividing rudders called *hydroplanes* are attached to each side near the bow and stern. These rudders can be inclined



ONLY THE PERISCOPE
SHOWING
In time of war the flag
is absent
upward or downward, and they direct the boat in diving and rising to the surface. In front of the conning tower is the periscope, which is the "eye of the ship." The speed of a submarine at the surface is from seventeen to twenty-two miles an hour, and when submerged, from nine to eighteen miles.

Equipment. The naval submarine is designed for sinking ships by the means of torpedoes, and the equipment is all planned to this end. The interior is divided into a number of compartments—one is for officers' quarters and another for the men. A number of seamless steel tanks contain air under great pressure, sometimes as high as 2,500 pounds to the square inch. This air is used for forcing water out of the tanks when the boat is to rise to the surface, and for supplying air to the crew. The motors are in the stern, and there is one for each propeller.

Formerly all submarines were propelled by electricity when submerged, and by crude oil



SUBMARINE, UP FOR AIR

when above water. All modern vessels of this type are now equipped with Diesel engines of the most improved design. The steering gear is similar to that on other ships. On small boats it is operated by hand, but on large ones electric power is used.

The Periscope. The periscope is in front of the conning tower and consists of a tube that can be extended upward about twenty feet, and lowered as the boat nears the surface. A lens fixed in the tube near the top throws a picture of the sea within its field

upon a prism which reflects it down to another prism at the bottom of the tube, where the commanding officer can see it through a glass that closely resembles a field glass. The combination of prisms and lenses is such that the view obtained enables the observer to judge accurately of the location and distance of objects. The entire apparatus can be rotated, so that a view in any direction may be readily obtained. Each modern submarine is provided with two periscopes, one for the commander and one for the helmsman. The gyro-compass shows the direction the boat is taking. This compass consists of a small gyroscope (which see), so mounted that it moves freely on a vertical pivot. The gyroscope when undisturbed will rotate in a plane parallel to the earth's axis; consequently it points directly north and south. The magnetic compass cannot be used because the steel of the ship and the electric currents deflect the needle from its course.

Torpedo Tubes. The torpedo tubes might be called the guns from which the torpedoes are fired. They are usually placed in the upper part of the bow, but they may be placed in the stern or amidships. The outer end of the tube is closed with a water-tight cap which can be opened and closed by a mechanism within the boat. The torpedo is fired by compressed air. The number of tubes a boat can carry depends upon its size. The smallest boats can carry only two. One or more guns for repelling attacks or for attacking also form a part of the equipment.

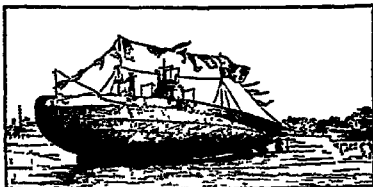
Safety Devices. Each member of the crew is supplied with a safety helmet similar to that used by divers, by means of which he can breathe under water for several hours. Air locks enable men trapped in a damaged compartment to escape to one that is not dam-

safety keel consisting of a keel twelve inches deep, twenty-four inches wide and having a length determined by the weight desired is attached to the boat amidships. The keel is made of steel plates and is filled with lead. It weighs from five to twenty tons, and is attached to the boat by a device by which it can be instantly released in case of accident. Its release enables the boat to ascend to the surface instantly. In short, all possible precautions are taken for the safety of officers and men, but at best the navigation of a submarine is exceedingly dangerous.

Operation. When a submarine is ready to submerge the tanks are filled, and the boat settles in the water until only the conning tower remains above the surface. The diving rudders are tilted at a slight angle and the motor is started. As the boat moves forward it moves downward. When the desired depth is reached, the diving rudders are changed to a horizontal position and the boat moves through the water at that level. When searching for hostile ships the periscope is kept four or five feet above the water, and if other ships are near, the submarine must move very slowly or the wave caused by the periscope will reveal its location to the enemy. As the ship to be destroyed is approached, a torpedo is placed in the tube, and when the commander has brought his boat into the right position he presses a button and the torpedo is launched.

When a submarine discovers an airplane or a destroyer approaching, it immediately dives to a depth which will assure its safety. The destroyer, which is a swift boat of light draught, armed with rapid-fire guns, whose shells can penetrate its armor, is the enemy most feared by the submarine, for a single shot that pierces the armor is likely to send the boat to the bottom. The small submarines have an approximate radius of about 1,000 miles, larger boats can travel 5,000 to 8,000 miles from their base.

The Submarine in the World War. Details of the work of the submarine in the World War will be found in the article **WORLD WAR**. It was this war that revealed the power of the submarine as an instrument of destruction, but the war also showed that the submarine was not invincible. That these boats were the only branch of the German navy that was effective during the war, and that they inflicted great loss on the shipping of the allies and on that of neutral na-



LAUNCHING OF THE CUTTLE FISH, U S N
aged, and each compartment is provided with an escape hatch. All pumping systems for air and water are duplicated, so that if one is injured another can take its place. A

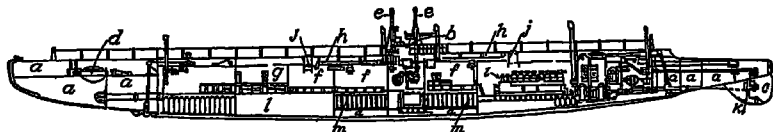
tions is true. But, with all their power for destruction, they were unable to prevent the British navy from keeping the German fleet shut up in the Baltic Sea, thus rendering it wholly ineffective during the entire period of the conflict. For a few months, following Germany's order to sink without warning all ships bound to or from the ports of the allies, large numbers of ships were destroyed, but as soon as England and America were able to put on the seas great fleets of destroyers, the activity of the submarines was checked, and during the last months of the war they accomplished little.

Great Britain, France and the United States all had fleets of submarines, but since

of different navies differ in minor points, they all embody the main features of Holland's design. During the World War the Germans constructed two large submarines for commercial purposes, one of which, the *Deutschland*, made two successful voyages to the United States.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.
Submarine Mine Torpedo Boat
Torpedo World War

SUBMARINE MINE, one of the most dangerous and destructive weapons employed in naval warfare, consists of a steel shell charged with a powerful explosive and containing a device for exploding the charge. Submarine mines are so placed in water as to



SUBMARINE

- (a) Ballast tanks
- (b) Conning tower
- (c) Rudder
- (d) Diving rudder (hydroplane)

- (e) Periscope
- (f) Crew quarters
- (g) Officer's quarters
- (h) Torpedo tubes
- (i) Engines

- (j) Escape hatches
- (k) Propeller
- (l) Oil tank for fuel
- (m) Storage battery

the shipping of the Central Powers was driven from the seas, there were no ships for these boats to attack, and because of this they were not brought prominently before the public. They were invaluable, however, for hunting and attacking submarines of the enemy in all seas surrounding Europe.

History. During the eighteenth and the early part of the nineteenth century there were several attempts to construct a submarine boat. In 1800 Robert Fulton, then in France, built a number of submarine boats, but they were not practical. During the Civil War the Confederates used a number of submarines propelled by steam engines, as well as some by hand. These boats, called *David*s, from their smallness as compared to the ships they attacked, were made of old boiler plates, and when advancing to the attack, the top was just under the surface of the water.

The submarine in its present form is the invention of John P. Holland of Paterson, N. J., whose first boat was built in 1877. A Swedish inventor, Nordenfelt, constructed a boat somewhat similar to Holland's in 1866. Both patterns were submitted to the United States government for approval and Holland's was adopted. Although the submarines

destroy or injure any ship which comes in contact with them. Guncotton, which is not injured by water, is the explosive used.

Mines are of three kinds—observation, electro-contact and automatic. Observation mines are placed in harbors or near the shore, and the operator, by switching on an electric current, can explode the mine or group of mines nearest the attacking vessel. Electro-contact mines are constructed in such a way that when they are suddenly tipped to an angle of over 70° a small quantity of mercury is released to complete the circuit between two wires, and the mine explodes. In observation mines no electric current flows until the operator turns the switch; in the electro-contact mines the current is always flowing, but the circuit is not completed until the mine is suddenly hit and tipped over. Both observation mines and electro-contact mines must be anchored so that they are from 5 to 20 feet below the surface of the water. The third class of mines is the automatic, which are just like the electro-contact variety except that the electric current is furnished by dry cells inside the mine. Automatic mines are the only ones which can be used at any distance from shore. They may

be anchored or allowed to drift. In the latter case, they are called *floating mines*.

Mine-Laying. Mines have to be placed with great care, if they are to be effective. Each mine must be located where ships will be most likely to come in contact with it, and its depth must be accurately calculated. Laying the cables to mines that are exploded by batteries on shore is also a delicate operation. The wires connecting the mine with the battery must be strong enough to anchor the mine and of sufficient length to keep the mine at such a depth that it will not be hit by vessels entering or leaving the harbor.

Mine Sweeping. Various devices have been invented for locating and removing mines. Whatever the method employed, ships engaged in this work incur great danger. Figure 1 shows the method in general use previous to 1917. Two vessels are connected by a heavily-weighted cable, which they drag between them. The mines caught by the cable



FIG 1—"SWEEPING" FOR MINES
Showing the method by which mines may be removed

are destroyed. Another method of rendering mined waters safe is countermining, that is, by exploding mines in the suspected area. The explosion causes all previously laid mines to explode, and it may detach

mines connected with electric cables and render them harmless.

The latest and most effective device for protecting ships from mines is the *paravane*, invented by Commander Burney of the British navy during the first two years of the World War. The device consists of a pair of steel structures called *otters*, shaped very much like a torpedo, except that they are shorter. A series of serrated steel knives, for cutting the cables holding the mines in position are attached to the front end of each otter. The otters are attached to the ship by a tough steel towing-rope about 150

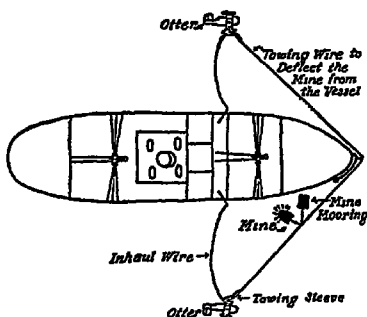


FIG 2—THE PARAVANE

feet in length. A large steel plane attached to the otter acts in such a way when the ship is in motion as to draw it away from the ship, so that the pair of otters with their towing lines form a huge triangle. When the moorings of a mine are caught by the towing line they are forced along to the otter, where they are cut by the serrated knives, then the mine rises to the surface, and it is easily destroyed. Over 4,000 British and a large number of American ships were equipped with paravanes during the war, and not a ship so equipped was destroyed by a mine.

SUBPOENA, *sub p'e-na*, a written notice issued by a court, or an official having judicial powers, commanding a person or persons to appear at a certain time and place and give testimony in a case in court. Failure to comply with the summons constitutes contempt of court. See **CONTEMPT**. The Latin word *subpoena* means *under penalty*. A *subpoena duces tecum* (bring with you under penalty) is a command to appear as a wit-

ness with specified books, papers or other exhibits.

SUBSIDY, in public law, monetary aid granted by a government to an individual or commercial enterprise for the furtherance of a project believed to redound to the public good. Thus, when the Union Pacific Railroad was constructed, the United States government granted the railway corporation tracts of public land along its route as a partial reimbursement for the great sums of money expended in the railroad construction. Aid of this nature extended by a national, state or city government to a private enterprise to assist it in attaining a firm financial basis is known as a *subsidy*; the corporation receiving this financial assistance is said to be *subsidized*.

In international law, subsidy is money furnished by one nation to another to aid it in carrying on a war against a third nation, when such nation does not itself join directly in the conflict.

SUBTRACTION. See **ARITHMETIC**.

SUBWAY, or **UNDERGROUND RAILWAY**, a tunnel or system of tunnels constructed in a large city for the purpose of placing a railroad beneath the level of the street to relieve the congestion of travel or freight in the streets. A street is closed partly or wholly and an excavation made to the required depth and width. Floor, walls and roof are then laid and earth is filled in to the street level. After paving, the street is reopened to traffic.

Modern Subways. Many of the world's most progressive cities are adopting the subway system to replace noisy elevated structures which so detract from a city's beauty. London was the first city to construct a subway, and its original model was operated by steam. More modern subways are run by electricity. In Europe, London, Paris and Berlin have long possessed subways. Moscow opened one in 1935.

In the United States, New York, Boston and Philadelphia have overcome surface-car and freight obstructions by means of satisfactory subway systems. Chicago's subways are confined to freight alone, the lines extending for about seventy miles through the hub of the business district. However, in the not far distant future that city, too, will solve its surface-car congestion problems by the construction of a comprehensive system of rapid-transit tubes.

New York's subway is the most extensive of the world's systems. A large part of it is arranged with four tracks to accommodate express and local trains, which have from six to ten coaches each. The subways of the city are the independent Eighth Avenue line, city-owned, the Interborough, and the Brooklyn-Manhattan Transit (B.M.T.). There are more than 700 single-track miles in the subways of the metropolitan area. The stations in the 42nd Street district comprise many underground acres, a veritable labyrinth of tracks; some stations are 400 feet in length. The cost of construction per mile of the New York system averaged \$2,000,000; at times to overcome obstructions it required an outlay totaling \$5,000,000 per mile, exclusive of equipment.

SUCCESSION, *suk sesh'un*, **WAR**, wars which have arisen from conflicting claims for the possession of a crown. In modern European history the most important of these struggles were the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714), the War of the Polish Succession (1733-1735), the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-1748) and the War of the Bavarian Succession (1778-1779).

The War of the Spanish Succession. Shortly before the death of Charles II of Spain, who had no direct heirs, several competitors laid claim to the throne, chief of whom were Louis XIV of France, son of the eldest sister of Philip IV, and Emperor Leopold of Austria, son of a younger sister of Philip IV. The other powers were greatly interested in this question, since the union of either France or Austria with Spain would have endangered the balance of power in Europe. After much negotiation Philip of Anjou was put forward by Louis XIV to represent the French claim, and Leopold nominated his second son Charles as his substitute, both declaring that Spain should never be incorporated with their respective dominions. The king of Spain eventually recognized Philip as his heir, and on the king's death, in November, 1700, Philip was proclaimed king at Madrid. He was recognized by most of the European powers except Austria, which in the following year declared war against France.

However, the arrogant and aggressive behavior of Louis, his recognition of the son of James II as king of England and his declaration that the accession of Philip to the

Spanish throne did not prevent his succession in France, caused England, Holland and Austria to combine against him and Philip in 1702. Prince Eugene of Austria had already opened the contest and had won some victories over the French. In 1702-1703, Marlborough, at the head of an allied army, reduced the French strongholds along the Meuse and in the Low Countries; in 1704 he joined his forces with Eugene, and together they defeated the Franco-Bavarian army at Blenheim. Barcelona was captured by an English force in 1705, and the earl of Peterborough gained some brilliant successes in this quarter. In 1706 the French were defeated by Marlborough at Ramillies, and by the Austrians at Turin. By 1707 the French and Spanish had driven the allies out of Spain, but in the following year Marlborough and Eugene reunited their forces and severely defeated the French at Oudenarde.

The resources of France were now crippled, and Louis made overtures of peace, which were rejected. The struggle was renewed with great vigor; Villars proceeded against Marlborough and Eugene, but he was defeated by the allies at Malplaquet in September, and matters continued to look very unfavorable for Louis. The war dragged on until the accession of the Archduke Charles to the Austrian throne changed the whole aspect of affairs, and the struggle, so far as Great Britain, France and Holland were concerned, was brought to an end by the Peace of Utrecht in 1713. Peace between Great Britain and Spain soon followed, the former gaining Gibraltar and Minorca, and in 1714 the emperor, Charles, forsaken by his allies, was reluctantly compelled to sign a treaty at Baden, recognizing Philip V as the king of Spain.

The War of the Polish Succession. When the Polish nobles elected as king of Poland Stanislas Leszczyński, father-in-law of Louis XV of France, they clashed with the interests of Russia and Saxony, who were determined that Augustus, elector of Saxony should be king. France was unable to keep Stanislas on the throne, and Augustus III was recognized king of Poland.

The War of the Austrian Succession. This arose on the extinction of the male line of the House of Hapsburg, by the death of Emperor Charles VI in 1740. By diplomatic negotiations before his death and by means

of the settlement called the Pragmatic Sanction, Charles had endeavored to secure the Austrian succession for his daughter, Maria Theresa. But there were several other claimants for the Austrian possessions, which included Bohemia, Hungary, northern Italy, part of the Netherlands and Austria proper. Besides Maria Theresa, the other claimants of importance were Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, and Philip V of Spain; while the chief European powers which took an interest in the succession were France, Prussia and England. The first movement was made by Frederick II of Prussia, who, in December, 1740, marched his army into Silesia and secured that province as his share of the spoil. In the following year an agreement was entered into between France, Spain, Bavaria, Prussia, Saxony, Sardinia and Naples, by the terms of which a French-Bavarian army entered Upper Austria, another French army invaded the Austrian possessions in the Netherlands, and the forces of Spain and Naples occupied the Austrian territory in northern Italy. This having been done, the coalition arranged that Charles Albert should be crowned as emperor of Germany, under the title of Charles VI, and this was accomplished at Frankfort.

Meanwhile, Maria Theresa appealed for help to the Hungarian Diet, with such effect that a Hungarian force promptly invaded Bavaria and captured the city of Munich. She also formed an alliance with England, in accordance with which the English government furnished her with money, sent a fleet to Naples to demand the withdrawal of Neapolitan troops from Austrian territory, and supplied a portion of the army which defeated the French forces at Dettingen (1743). After this event negotiations for peace were begun, but with so little success that another league was formed, including England, Holland, Austria, Saxony and Sardinia, and a general European war broke out. Among the more important events of this general conflict were the Second Silesian War, begun by Frederick II; an attempted invasion of England by France, in favor of the Pretender, and the brilliant campaign in the Netherlands conducted by Marshal Saxe, terminating (May, 1745), in the victory of Fontenoy, where the English and allies were defeated. In 1745, however, Emperor Charles VII died, and his son, Maximilian Joseph, gave up all claim to the

Austrian throne and concluded peace with that country; in the same year the husband of Maria Theresa was elected emperor, under the name of Francis I. War was still continued against Austria by the French forces under Marshal Saxe, but ultimately a definite treaty of peace between all the powers was signed in 1748 at Aix-la-Chapelle.

The War of the Bavarian Succession. The Elector Maximilian Joseph of Bavaria died without legitimate issue in 1777, and Charles Theodore, the Elector Palatine, succeeded him. Charles also was without legitimate heirs, and in 1778 he made an agreement with Austria whereby Lower Bavaria was to be transferred to Austria and the natural children of Charles were to have the status of princes of the empire. The next heir, Charles, Duke of Zweibrücken, protested, and was supported by the king of Prussia. This brought on the war of the Bavarian Succession, which was settled by compromise before any serious fighting took place.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

Aix-la-Chapelle,	Frederick II
Treaties of	(the Great)
Blenheim	Louis XIV (France)
Charles VI	Maria Theresa
French and Indian	Marlborough,
Wars	Duke of
	Pragmatic Sanction

SUCKER, a name applied popularly to several fish because of the manner in which they use their mouths in eating. The best known is the *common sucker* of the streams and lakes of North America. There are several species, none of which is very large. All have roundish mouths on the lower side of the head, and thick, puckered lips, with which they suck up food from the mud of the bottom. In some places they are very abundant, but, because they have numerous small bones, they are not much eaten.

SUCRE, *soo'kra*, the official capital of the republic of Bolivia, known locally as *Chuquisaca*. Though it is the official seat of government, the sessions of Congress are held at La Paz, a city 300 miles northwest. However, at Sucre is the Supreme Tribunal of Justice.

The city is situated on a plateau, about 9,000 feet above the sea, on a small branch of the Pilcomayo River. The principal industries of the vicinity are mining and agriculture, the latter the more important. Places of interest are Saint Xavier University, the oldest university in South America, a fine

cathedral and the President's palace. The city was settled in 1536 by the Spaniards, who called it La Plata. It was the scene of the declaration of Bolivian independence in 1825, and later was named Sucre in honor of the republic's first President. Population, 1929, 34,577.

SUDAN, or **SOUDAN**, *soo dah's*, an extensive region in Africa, chiefly south of the Sahara, but partly in the desert. Its boundaries are indefinite, but it extends from the Sahara to French Equatorial Africa and from the French Senegambia on the west to Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, under English control.

European Protectorates. The region is inhabited by negro and Arab tribes, but since 1902 it has been placed under the protection of European powers. The eastern part, or Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, is a protectorate of Great Britain. This section is divided into fifteen provinces, and their governors are either British officers of the Egyptian army employed under the Sudan government, or are British civil officials. Darfur, a district within the limits of the English Sudan, is still ruled by its hereditary sultan. Anglo-Egyptian Sudan covers an area of about 1,008,100 square miles; its population in 1933 was estimated at 5,606,000. Its chief towns are Khartoum, Omdurman and Port Sudan.

The western section is under French influence, and comprises six colonies, notably Senegal, French Guinea and Dahomey. These colonies are each under a lieutenant-general of all the colonies. French West Africa covers an area of 1,799,039 square miles, with a population estimated in 1931 to be 14,576,000. English and French influences have been very effective in the development of the Sudan and the enlightenment of its people.

Topography. Sudan contains lofty mountains and broad plains, which are in some places nearly void of vegetation and in others interspersed with patches of forest and open country. Other localities are characterized by high plateaus. The loftiest mountain range is the Adamawa, whose highest summit is 10,000 feet above the sea. Much of the Sudan is covered with a luxuriant growth of vegetation. The climate is hot, and in the lowlands along the coast and streams it is extremely unhealthful for Europeans.

Production and Commerce. The Sudan is the chief source of the world's supply of gum arabic and ivory. Cotton, sugar, rice, ba-

nanas, dates and other tropical fruits are raised and exported. From the dense jungles of Lake Chad, inhabited by wild elephants, come most of the world's supply of ivory.

In the eastern section, where there is less vegetation, cattle, camels, sheep and ostriches are raised; the ostrich feathers from this region are famed. Gold is the only mineral which at present is being mined with any degree of success, although iron and silver are present in abundance.

SUDAN GRASS, a hay grass introduced by the Federal Department of Agriculture into the United States in 1909 from Khartum, Sudan. The excellent results of the initial test in Texas were so encouraging that thousands of acres were subsequently planted in the South and Southwest, in humid as well as in irrigated areas.

Sudan grass has no perennial rootstock, which eliminates the danger of its becoming a pest. It is cultivated annually from seed as a forage plant as well as for its seed, is one of the best drought-resisting plants known to the American farmer, and thrives in almost any soil. The first crop matures in from sixty to eighty days; and from two or three cuttings of hay are obtainable each year, depending on the region where it is planted. In Hawaii it is considered one of the most successful grass introductions ever made.

SUDERMANN, HERMANN (1857-1928), a German novelist and dramatist, born at Matzicken, East Prussia. After studying at the universities of Königsberg and Berlin, he became a tutor, later a journalist, and in 1887 published his first collection of stories. In the following year he wrote the novels *Dame Care* and *Regina* and the drama *Honor*, the last of which brought him fame. *Magda*, his greatest drama; *The Joy of Living*, a powerful play dealing with the struggle between natural selection and marital obligation; and *Es War*, a psychological novel, are representative. They are among the most significant productions in present-day German literature, and are remarkable alike for the ideas they embody, for style and for the virile picture of humanity they present. Important works not already mentioned are *John the Baptist*, *The Song of Songs*, *The Undying Past* and two collections of one-act plays entitled respectively *Roses* and *Moritur*.

SUE, su, **MARIE JOSEPH EUGENE** (1804-1857), a French novelist. He inherited a large fortune from his father, a surgeon in Napo-

leon's army, and after studying medicine and practicing for a time, he settled at Paris and devoted himself to literature. His first work was a sea novel, *Kernock, the Pirate*. This was quickly followed by *Phick and Ploch*, *Atar-Gull*, *The Salamander* and the *Lookout of Koatven*. Sue wrote some historical fiction, but his most famous works are *The Mysteries of Paris* and *The Wandering Jew*, books dealing with the mysterious and supernatural. His later novels are *The Foundling*, *The Seven Capital Sins* and *The Mysteries of the People*. In 1850 Sue was elected to the Constituent Assembly as an advanced radical.

SUEZ, soo ez, a seaport situated at the head of the Gulf of Suez, seventy-six miles east of Cairo, with which it is connected by rail, it is also at the southern end of the Suez Canal. Despite the improvements which the opening of the canal brought in its train, as well as its increased population and apparent commercial importance, Suez has remained dirty and unattractive. It has never regained its former position as a prosperous trade center for the Orient, as it is but little affected by the vast commerce of the canal. Most of the houses are built of sun-dried brick. The city contains a number of mosques and, in the European quarter, several substantial hotels, warehouses and modern structures. Population, 1927, 40,523.

SUEZ CANAL, a ship canal across the Isthmus of Suez, connecting the Mediter-



THE SUEZ CANAL

anean with the Red Sea. It extends from Port Said, on the Mediterranean, to Suez, on the Gulf of Suez, a distance of one hun-

dred miles, and is the longest ship canal in the world. About sixty miles of the channel is through shallow lakes. It is a sea-level canal and has no locks. Work on it was begun in 1859, and the structure was completed in ten years. The original expense was about \$127,000,000.

The Suez Canal was undertaken and carried to completion under the direction of Count Ferdinand de Lesseps, a French engineer. Its construction shortened the sailing distance between England and India more than 5,000 miles, and it has materially increased the traffic between European and Asiatic countries. The canal is lighted by electric lights, so that ships can navigate it by night as well as by day. About 5,000 vessels pass through it each year, and the annual tolls amount to about \$80,000,000. It is under the management of an international commission. Control of the canal is not in English hands, as many believe; France is the heaviest stockholder. This fact has led the English to inquire into the cost of a new British canal, to be built a few miles to the east. See CANAL.

SUFFRAGE, *suffrage*, in a representative government, is the act or right of a qualified voter to participate in the election of officers or in the making or approval of laws by the initiative and referendum. The general idea of suffrage is traced to the origin of the jury system. The principal qualifications now required for suffrage are intellectual ability, property possession, moral character and residence. Not all states lay such restrictions, and no state requires all of them.

Suffrage in the United States. At various times in all sections of the United States all the above restrictions were in force, with the addition of religious affiliation. In colonial days less than one-fourth of the men were given the voting power, because of religion and property qualifications and religious distinctions. These bars were gradually lifted. The Federal Constitution has always recognized the right of each individual state to decide upon whom the right to vote shall be conferred, but specifically specifies that "race, color, or previous condition of servitude" shall not disqualify any citizen of his right of franchise.

The attainment of the age of twenty-one years is a qualification for voting in every state. Except in a few states where, for local reasons, special educational and proper-

ty tests are exacted, universal manhood suffrage exists in every state in the Union. An amendment to the Constitution granting suffrage to women passed both houses of Congress in 1919 and ratified by the requisite number of States in 1920.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Australian Ballot
Ballot
Election

Short Ballot
Woman Suffrage



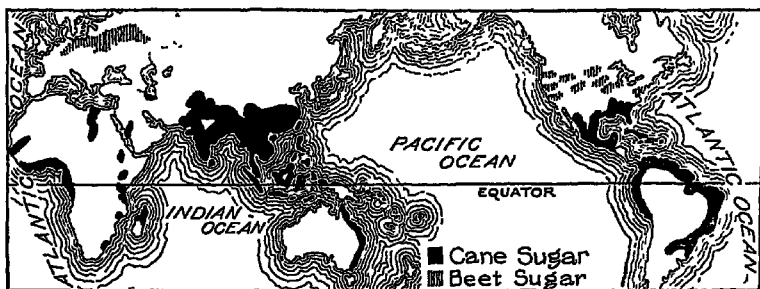
SUGAR, one of the most essential articles of food, is found in the juices of many plants, but in only a few in sufficient quantities to make its extraction commercially profitable. These are sugar cane, sorghum, the sugar beet and the sugar maple. Small quantities are sometimes obtained from the cocoanut and other palms. The sugar of commerce is practically all obtained from sugar cane and beets.

Cane Sugar. This is prepared from the sugar cane. The leading countries in the production of this plant are Cuba, Java, Porto Rico, Brazil, Argentina and certain sections of the United States, particularly Louisiana and Hawaii. The cane found in the tropical regions is the richest in sugar. That of the West Indies furnishes about 225 pounds of sugar to a ton of cane, while that from Louisiana yields only about 160 pounds. In the manufacture of sugar the cane is first crushed between heavy rollers, which press out the juice. The rollers are in two or three sets, called *mills*, each mill so adjusted that it presses the cane harder than the one before it. As the crushed stalks pass from one mill to another, they are moistened with water of varying temperature, in order that the remaining juices may be liberated; the crushed stalks, or *bagasse*, are used for fuel under the boilers. By this process about nine-tenths of all the cane sugar is manufactured. The juice is immediately treated with sulphurous acid gas, and it is then mixed with lime; the gas bleaches it and permits excessive liming, which materially aids in the clarification of the juice and prevents the

separation into grape sugar and cane sugar. The juice is then filtered, after which it is ready for reduction by evaporation.

For the first sugars, the juice, after being reduced to a syrup in evaporators, is boiled at a low temperature in vacuum pans until the water is all driven off and crystallization takes place, forming a *masscuite*, which is pure sugar mixed with a small per cent of syrup. This masscuite is dropped into a mixer, where it is stirred and kept from caking by revolving paddles. From the mixer it is fed to revolving cylinders called *centrifugals*, on the sides

sections in the tropical and semi-tropical regions. Beets, on the other hand, thrive in temperate regions and over a much wider area. The manufacture of beet sugar was one of the important industries in France and Germany before the World War, and it was suspended only during the period of that conflict. Sugar beets are successfully grown in a number of the states of the United States and the quantity of beet sugar manufactured in that country is increasing from year to year. Michigan, Colorado, Nebraska, California and Arizona are among the leading states engaged in the industry. In the manufacture



SUGAR PRODUCING REGIONS

of which is a basket of wire netting. As the cylinder revolves at a high rate of speed the masscuite is washed, the amount of washing varying with the quality of the sugar manufactured. The liquid portion is forced out through the meshes of the basket, and this, after several reboilings, constitutes the molasses of commerce. The solid crystals of sugar are left within the centrifugal. The sugar is then dropped on to conveyors and taken to the granulator to be thoroughly dried, the granulator being a revolving cylinder heated by steam, through which the sugar is fed by gravity. Sugar thus made is placed on the market as *granulated sugar*. *Loaf sugar* is made by packing the fresh sugar in molds, where it is allowed to form blocks, which are sawed to the desired shape. Cheaper grades of sugar, known as seconds and thirds, are made from the syrups taken from the first sugars. The first is placed on the market as *coffee sugar*, and the latter is known as *brown sugar*; both are sold principally to the large refineries.

Beet Sugar. Climate and soil limit the area in which sugar cane can grow to certain

of beet sugar the diffusion process is used. The beets are first sliced by machinery, then placed in iron cells, where a constant circulation of water is kept up, the juice being drawn from the cell holding the fresh chips, and the fresh water being introduced into the last of a series of cells, just before dropping the chips. The liquid thus obtained is first treated with carbonic acid gas; it is then mixed with lime, after which carbonic acid gas is forced through it a second time. The gas combines with the lime and other impurities and causes them to settle at the bottom of the tank. The liquid is then passed through bag filters, when it is ready for evaporation. The remaining processes are the same as those used in making cane sugar. A ton of beets will make from 320 to 400 pounds of sugar. The waste chips are fed to cattle.

Maple Sugar. Maple sugar is obtained from the sap of the sugar, or rock, maple and it is highly prized on account of its delicate flavor. The sugar season begins in the spring, as soon as the sap commences to circulate in the trees. The sap is obtained by boring a small hole in the trunk of the tree, from an

Outline and Questions on Sugar

I. SOURCES

- (1) Sugar Cane
 - (a) Where grown
 - (1) United States
 - (2) Other countries
 - (b) Description
 - (1) Height
 - (2) Leaves
 - (3) Resembles what plant?
 - (c) Sugar mills
 - (1) Processes
 - (2) Crushing stalks
 - (3) Reduction of sap
 - (4) Refining, etc.
 - (d) Products
 - (1) Granulated sugar
 - (2) Loaf sugar
 - (3) Brown or raw sugar
- (2) Beets
 - (a) Where grown
 - (1) United States
 - (2) Other countries
 - (b) Sugar factories
 - (1) Processes
 - (2) Slicing beets
 - (3) Drawing juice
 - (4) Refining, etc.
- (3) Maple Sap
 - (a) Where produced?
 - (b) Season
 - (c) Securing sap
 - (d) Sugar-making (see sugar cane)
 - (e) Flavor, value, etc.
- (4) Sorghum
 - (a) Resembles what plant?
 - (b) Process (see sugar cane)
 - (c) Product
 - (1) Syrup
 - (2) Sugar—not of commercial importance

II. SUGAR REFINERIES

- (1) Location of
- (2) Work of refining
- (3) Annual output of cane sugar, beet sugar
- (4) United States
 - (a) Annual output of cane sugar
 - (b) Annual output of beet sugar
 - (c) Annual consumption of sugar

- (d) Annual importation of sugar
- (e) Annual consumption of individual.

III. BY-PRODUCTS

- (1) Molasses and Syrups
 - (a) Sorghum
 - (b) New Orleans molasses
 - (c) Foundation for all syrups
- (2) Bagasse
- (3) Beet chips

Questions on Sugar

How many pounds of sugar are made from a ton of beets? From a ton of West India cane? Louisiana cane?

What is the sugar you use daily made from—beets, sugar cane or maple sap?

How is loaf sugar made?

In what cities are some of the sugar refineries located in the United States?

What are the chief uses of maple sugar?

What is sorghum? Why is not the cane suitable for sugar?

What do we mean by raw sugar? Brown sugar?

What countries lead in the raising of sugar cane?

How does the cane in the tropics compare with that of cooler climates?

What becomes of the crushed stalks?

Upon what does the growth of the sugar cane depend largely?

For how long a period does one planting last? Is this an important factor?

What is done with the beets after extraction of the sugar? With the cane stalks?

What color is the raw sugar? What is used to whiten it?

Is a maple tree injured by tapping for its sap?

Why can cane sugar not be grown in cool climates?

Is there extensive production of sugar beets in any country except the United States?

Is any sugar cane grown on the continent of Europe?

Will cane for sorghum grow farther north than sugar cane?



SUGAR

1 Sugar Beets
2 Blossom, Sugar Cane, enlarged

3, Leaf of Sugar Cane
4 Leaf and Fruit, Sugar Maple
5, Blossom, Sugar Maple

6 Maple Sapling (Ox-bow)
7 Sugar Cane



SOURCES OF OUR SUGAR

Cutting sugar-cane on a tropical plantation Gathering
sap from maple trees in northern woods Harvesting
beets for beet-sugar.



inch to an inch and a half deep, placing in this an iron spile, containing a hook, to which a bucket is attached. The sap drips through the spile into the bucket. The sap is collected and evaporated in the sugar houses, constructed specially for the purpose. The evaporating apparatus is constructed on such a plan that the sap flows in at one end and the syrup flows out at the other. Four gallons of sap make a pound of sugar. Maple sugar is placed on the market in the form of syrup and sugar. It is now used only as a delicacy and commands a very high price. The leading states in its production are Vermont, New York and Ohio. The province of Quebec now holds the first place in the production of this delicacy.

Average Annual Sugar Production

(Figures represent thousands of short tons)

Cane Sugar:

Louisiana	162
Hawaii	690
Porto Rico	500
Mexico	185
Cuba	5,000
Java	2,000
Brazil	500
India	2,600

Beet Sugar:

United States	927
Germany	1,700
Czechoslovakia	600
Russia	500
Poland	500
France	800
Belgium	400

Maple Sugar:

Quebec	3
Vermont	6
New York	4
Ontario	3

Sorghum. This is a variety of cane used in the manufacture of syrup. It will grow in much cooler climates than sugar cane, but the amount of sugar obtained from it is not sufficient to be worthy of consideration, when compared with the sugar made from cane and beets. The sap is suitable for the manufacture of syrup only, and the process used is similar to that employed in the manufacture of cane sugar.

Refining. Much of the sugar imported into the United States is received in the crude form, known as *raw sugar*. This is dissolved in water to which a small quantity of lime has been added. This solution is then heated by steam and passed through filters which consist of deep vats with perforated bottoms contain-

ing a thick layer of animal charcoal. The filter removes the coloring matter. The syrup is collected underneath the tanks and boiled in vacuum pans, until the water has been driven off and crystallization takes place. The mass is then treated the same as that from cane and beet sugar in the preparation of granulated sugar. The largest sugar refineries in the United States are located in New York, New Orleans, Philadelphia and San Francisco.

SUGAR CANE, a plant of the grass family from which about one-half of the sugar of commerce is obtained. Sugar cane is supposed to be a native of the tropical regions in Asia, but it is not at present found in the wild state. In general appearance sugar cane resembles maize or Indian corn. It grows to heights varying from five to eighteen feet, according to soil, climate and cultivation. The stalks vary from one to two inches in diameter, and are jointed like corn stalks. At each joint there is a bud or eye, which, when the cane is planted, sprouts and produces a new plant. The leaves grow to about three feet in length and are about two inches wide at the base, tapering gracefully to a point; they resemble leaves of corn.

When young the plant presents a fresh, green appearance, but as it matures some of the leaves turn a purplish hue, and those at the bottom turn yellow, wither and fall off. The illustration in the color plate is of a mature plant, such as grows in the tropics. Further north the sugar cane is a forced plant and does not blossom.

Sugar cane is grown extensively in the tropical regions of Asia, Cuba and other West Indian Islands, Hawaii and Louisiana and to a less extent in several countries of Europe and the other Gulf states. The soil should be very fertile and carefully prepared. In this country the soil is plowed and thrown up into ridges from five to seven feet apart. A deep furrow is plowed in the top of the ridge, and the cane is laid on this for covering. The best results are obtained by planting only the upper joints of the cane. Two or three cuttings may be laid side by side in the furrow. The cane is covered with a plow and sometimes the ground is rolled. In Louisiana it requires about eight months for the crop to mature. During growth the land is frequently cultivated to keep it free from weeds and to prevent evaporation.

At harvest time the cane is cut about two inches from the ground and stripped of leaves. The top is then cut off and the stalks are piled in rows for hauling to the factory. In Cuba and other tropical countries where there is no danger from frost, the crop is allowed from ten to eighteen months in which to mature. Small crops are obtained from one planting, but the first crop is the most valuable and for good results the field should be replanted every third year. See SUGAR.

SUICIDE, *su' cide*, the act of intentionally taking one's own life. Statistics on suicide are by no means complete; for, owing to the ignominy which society attaches to the deed and, in places, to the law's manner of dealing with it, many cases of suicide are not reported as such. The records available present such an unaccountable array of facts as to make them merely interesting. It is shown that four males commit suicide to one female; most of them between the ages of fifty-five and sixty-five; that single people have a stronger tendency than married persons to self-destruction. It seems that suicides are much more frequent among civilized than among barbarous peoples; and that among the former the highest percentage of suicides are in the ranks of those who work with their heads rather than with their hands. The professions, the arts, business administration and the army claim a large percentage.

These facts go to show that suicide is not an indication of mental weakness, and the conclusion is further supported by the lives of some of the world's greatest men who committed suicide or contemplated it. That country which shows the highest percentage of suicides is Saxony; the lowest, Ireland. Undoubtedly if there were records for comparison it would be found that suicides among Asiatics are more frequent than among Western peoples, Christianity being a deterrent influence, while some Eastern religions have favored self-destruction. Up to the present time the laws of China and Japan permit a certain class of criminals and discredited officials to perform their own execution by "hara kiri" (which see).

The manner of ending one's life seems to depend largely on environment. In cities death by gas or jumping from high buildings is not unusual; in warm countries drowning is most frequently resorted to. Poisoning and shooting are frequent means to the end sought.

The facts as stated point to no external cause of suicide, but indicate, rather, individual reaction to circumstance. Despondency is a chief cause of suicide in America. Jealousy drives many to suicide; brooding over religion is also a cause. In general, it may be stated that lack of intellectual diversion is one of the most frequent causes of suicide. The person who has healthy interests and who cultivates an altruistic attitude towards his fellows, is not likely to die by his own hand.

SULEIMAN II, *soo'lah mahm* See SOLYMAN II.

SULLA, LUCIUS CORNELIUS (138-78 B. C.), a Roman statesman and general. He served with distinction under Marius in the Jugurthine and Cimbrian wars and was chosen praetor. For his services in the Social War, he was appointed consul in 88 B. C., and the Province of Asia with the conduct of the war against Mithridates, fell to his lot. Marius also wanted this command, and to carry his point he resorted to acts of violence, by which Sulla was compelled to escape from Rome. But Sulla reentered the city at the head of his army, drove Marius to Africa and then sailed for the East at the beginning of 87 B. C. He expelled the armies of Mithridates from Europe, crossed into Asia and was everywhere victorious, gaining wealth for himself and his soldiers and forcing Mithridates to conclude a peace. Sulla now hastened to Italy, where, although Marius was dead, the Marian party was still strong, and after a number of combats, he entered Rome in triumph in 82. He put to death thousands of his enemies throughout Italy, had himself declared dictator and then ruled without restraint, repealed and made laws, abolished the tribuneship and settled his veterans in various parts of Italy. In 79 he laid down his dictatorship and spent the rest of his life in retirement. See MARIUS, CAIUS.

SULLIVAN, ARTHUR SEYMOUR, Sir (1842-1900), an English musician, born in London. He completed his musical education at the Royal Academy of Music. In 1858 he went to Leipzig, and on his return, in 1862, he at once attracted attention by his music to Shakespeare's *Tempest*. He wrote several oratorios and many songs and anthems, one of the most famous being *The Lost Chord*. Perhaps his most popular compositions were the burlesque operettas which he produced in collaboration with W. S. Gilbert. Among the

most popular are *Pinafore*, *Pirates of Penzance* and the *Mikado*. One of his finest compositions was written for an arrangement of Longfellow's *Golden Legend*. He was knighted in 1883.

SULPHATES, *sulfate's*, salts of sulphuric acid. Of the sulphates, some are very soluble, some sparingly soluble and some insoluble. The most important sulphates are sulphate of aluminum and potassium, or alum; sulphate of ammonium, employed for making carbonate of ammonia; sulphate of copper, or blue vitriol, much used in surgery and in dyeing, and for preparing certain green coloring matters; sulphate of iron, or green vitriol, used in making ink and very extensively used in dyeing, in calico printing and in medicine; sulphate of manganese, used in calico printing; sulphate of quinine, much used in medicine; sulphate of zinc, or white vitriol, used in surgery, in the preparation of drying oils for varnishes and in calico printing.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

Alum	Epsom Salt
Barium	Glauber's Salt
Blue Vitriol	Gypsum
Calcium	Strontium
Camel	Sulphuric Acid

SULPHUR, one of the non-metallic elements, easily recognized by its light yellow color and peculiar odor, often experienced in the burning of a match. Because of the low temperature at which it burns it was formerly called *brimstone*, which means *burn stone*. Sulphur has been known from the earliest ages. It occurs in a pure state, in beds of gypsum or clay, usually in volcanic regions. It also forms many compounds, some of which are valuable ores as pyrite, sulphide of iron, galena, sulphide of lead and cinnabar, or sulphide of mercury. Pure sulphur is commonly met with in two forms—as a compact, brittle solid, and as a fine powder. It is nearly tasteless, and when rubbed or melted it emits a peculiar odor. It is insoluble in water and is not very readily soluble in alcohol, but it is taken up by spirits of turpentine, by many oils and by carbon disulphide. It is a non-conductor of electricity and is readily melted and volatilized; it melts at 232° F., and between 232° and 280° it possesses the greatest degree of fluidity. It possesses the peculiar property of solidifying at a higher degree, or when raised to 320°. From 450° to its boiling point (792°) it again becomes fluid, and at 792° it rises in vapor, which condenses

in close vessels in the form of a fine, yellow powder, called *flowers of sulphur*. The roll sulphur of commerce is made by pouring melted sulphur into cylindrical molds, where it is cast.

Where Sulphur is Found. Formerly nearly all the sulphur of commerce came from Sicily, where there are large deposits in a pure state. In 1894 large beds of sulphur were opened in Louisiana and for many years this State led America in production, but the supply from this source has practically ceased. A new field was opened in Texas in 1914 and has proved enormously productive. The sulphur mines near Freeport, Texas, have in recent years produced in excess of ninety per cent of the sulphur production of the world. In extraction the sulphur is melted with compressed steam; then the melted portion is pumped to the surface, where it is allowed to cool in large masses, which are broken up and loaded on to cars. Sulphur is also found in various places in Italy, in the Caucasus, in upper Egypt, Japan, New Zealand and other parts of the world.

Compounds of Sulphur. Besides the ores mentioned above sulphur forms a large number of compounds, some of which are extensively used in the arts. When burned in the air it unites with oxygen, forming *sulphur dioxide*, a colorless gas with a suffocating odor always associated with burning sulphur. When moist this gas bleaches vegetable colors, and it is used in bleaching such fabrics as chlorine and other bleaching agents injure.

Hydrogen sulphide, or as it is more commonly called, sulphureted hydrogen, is the gas usually found in the water of sulphur springs, and is readily recognized by its disagreeable odor.

Carbon disulphide is a volatile liquid, with a poisonous vapor, produced by the action of sulphur upon carbon at high temperatures. It is used for dissolving rubber and gutta-percha, for extracting essential oils from plants and seeds and for extracting bitumen from minerals.

Ferrous sulphate, commonly known as *copperas*, or *green vitriol*, is extensively used in dyeing and in the manufacture of pigments and ink. *Copper sulphate*, or *blue vitriol*, is the most useful compound of sulphur and copper. It is used extensively in electric batteries, in electroplating, in calico

printing and dyeing, and for preserving timber. But the most useful of all compounds of sulphur is *sulphuric acid* (which see).

Uses of Sulphur. The most extensive use of pure sulphur is in the manufacture of sulphuric acid. Next in importance is its use in the manufacture of gunpowder and other explosives, and in fireworks. It is also extensively used in vulcanizing rubber. In medicine it is used internally as a laxative and as a remedy in rheumatism. It is used externally as an ointment in certain skin diseases. Sulphur is an important ingredient of the human system; it is estimated that the body of a healthy adult contains about one-fourth pound of it in combination.

SULPHURETED HYDROGEN, *sul'fu ret ed hw' dro jen*, or **HYDROGEN SULPHIDE**, *sul' fide*, a colorless, inflammable gas, a compound of sulphur and hydrogen. It occurs in some mineral waters and as a volcanic gas, and forms wherever albuminous substances containing sulphur are allowed to decompose. In the laboratory it is produced by causing sulphuric or hydrochloric acid to act on iron sulphide. It gives to water a sweetish taste and to air the odor of rotten eggs. The gas is very poisonous, and even a little of it in the air is dangerous when breathed. When mixed with one and one-half volumes of oxygen and ignited it explodes. A strip of filter paper soaked in a solution of lead acetate on exposure to the gas turns brown or black. This is a good test to discover the presence of the gas. Sulphureted hydrogen is extensively used in analytical chemistry.

SULPHURIC, *sul fu'rik*, **ACID**, the acid most extensively used in the arts, is a compound of sulphur trioxide and water. Pure sulphuric acid is a dense, oily, colorless fluid, exceedingly acid and corrosive, decomposing all animal and vegetable substances by the aid of heat. It unites with alkaline substances and separates most of the other acids from their combinations with the alkalies. It has a very great affinity for water and unites with it in every proportion, producing great heat; it attracts moisture strongly from the atmosphere, becoming rapidly weaker if exposed. The sulphuric acid of commerce is never pure, but it may be purified by distillation. With bases, sulphuric acid forms salts called sulphates, some of which are neutral and others acid. A very strong form of sulphuric acid, known as *Nordhausen acid*,

is prepared by heating green vitriol in closed vessels. It is chiefly used in the arts for dissolving indigo.

Uses. Sulphuric acid is used extensively in the arts and is, in fact, the chief agent for obtaining most of the other acids, by extraction from salt. In the chemical laboratory, the uses to which it is put are innumerable, and in the separation of copper, cobalt, nickel, silver and platinum from their ores, it is an important agent. Phosphorus, bromine, iodine, ether, starch, glucose, sugar, phosphorescent drinks, parchment paper, celluloid, nitroglycerine, gun cotton, coal tar colors and many dyes are all prepared by its aid. It is used in calico printing and in tanning, in dyeing, in refining tallow and many of the oils and in the preparation of all the sulphates. When to all these important uses we add its function as a medicinal agent, it is evident that sulphuric acid is really the most important of all the acids.

Manufacture. Sulphuric acid is manufactured on a large scale by burning sulphur or iron pyrites in a furnace and conducting the fumes with oxide of nitrogen into chambers lined with lead and containing steam. The sulphur dioxide formed by the burning sulphur takes an atom of oxygen from the nitric oxide and becomes sulphur trioxide. This unites with the steam and forms sulphuric acid, which gathers on the floor of the chamber.

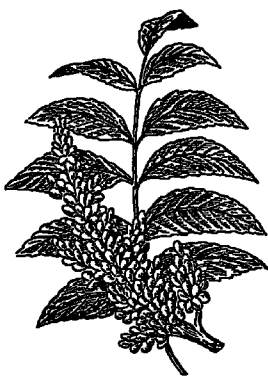
Formerly sulphuric acid was made by distilling green vitriol, or sulphate of iron. From this process of manufacture it is sometimes called *oil of vitriol*.

SUL'TAN, an Arabic word meaning *mighty one*, or *lord*, is the ordinary title of Mohammedan rulers. The former ruler of Turkey assumed the title of *sultan-es-selatin*, or sultan khan, "sultan of sultans." The title sultan was also applied to the sultan's daughters, and his mother was styled *Sultan Vahde*.

SULU, *soo'loo*, **ISLANDS**, the southernmost group of the Philippines, comprising nearly 200 small islands, the total area of which is about 1,600 square miles. Politically they are a part of the Philippine province of Moro. The archipelago is divided into six groups. Named in their order from the northeast, these are Basilan, Samales, Sulu, or Jolo, Siarsil, Kinatassan and Tawi-Tawi. Sulu is the most important. Nearly all the islands are covered with forests, which contain considerable teak and sandalwood. The

chief cultivated crops are rice, cacao, maize and various sorts of roots. Cocoa, bananas, breadfruits, mangoes and oranges are native to the island. The natives are chiefly Moros.

SUMAC, *su'mak*, or **SUMACH**, a genus of shrubs and small trees, containing about one hundred species, widely distributed throughout the world, in temperate and tropical climates. The most general North American species is the *Virgiman*, or *stag-horn, sumac*, distinguished by crooked, downy branches and small red berries. It turns flaming red in the autumn. The *smooth-leaved sumach*, which is also common in the United States, has acid leaves and ornamental red berries. Both these varieties produce valuable dye. Two closely allied species, found in almost all parts of the United States, are poisonous. They are creeping



SMOOTH-LEAVED SUMACH

or climbing vines, bearing groups of three leaflets. Another poison variety, which grows in swamps, is a shrub from fifteen to twenty feet high, which bears clusters of greenish-white flowers. Its leaves are extremely poisonous to some persons, producing serious inflammation or eruption of the skin. A Japanese poisonous variety produces a sap from which a fine lacquer is made.

SUMATRA, *soo mah'tra*, a great island in the Indian Ocean, separated from the Malay Peninsula by the Strait of Malacca and from Java by the Strait of Sunda. The equator traverses it about midway. Its greatest length is about 1,050 miles, its breadth about 240 miles, and its entire area about 180,000 square miles. Banca and other islands are adjacent to the coast. The west side of the island is mountainous, with peaks ranging in height from 2,000 feet in the south to 5,000 feet farther north, and culminating in Indrapura, a volcano 12,400 feet in height. Gold, copper, tin and iron are

found in abundance, and deposits of coal occur in places. The chief rivers are the Rokan, the Musi, the Jambi and the Indragiri, all of which have extensive deltas. The climate is unhealthful, rain falls almost incessantly in the south.

Mangroves are the chief vegetable product of the coast. In the more elevated regions, are found myrtles, palms, figs and oaks. The camphor tree is indigenous to the north, while among the curiosities are the upas tree and the gigantic rafflesia. Pepper, rice, sugar, tobacco, indigo, cotton and coffee are cultivated for export; also, in smaller quantities, are benzoin, catechu, gutta-percha, caoutchouc, teak, ebony and sandalwood. The animals include the elephant, tapir, two-horned rhinoceros, tiger, orang-utan, some species of deer and antelope and numerous birds and reptiles. The domestic animals are cows, pigs and horses.

The island is for the most part under the authority of the Dutch. There is a mixed population of Malays, Chinese, Arabs and native tribes, some of whom resemble the Caucasian types. The chief religion is Mohammedanism. See map, ASIA.

SUMMER, the season of the year between spring and autumn, beginning with the summer solstice, about June 21, and ending with the autumnal equinox, about September 22. In Canada and the United States June, July and August, the hottest months of the north temperate zone, are generally regarded as the summer season.

SUMMONS. See WRIT.

SUMNER, CHARLES (1811-1874), an American statesman, born at Boston, Mass., and educated at Harvard University. In 1834 he was admitted to the bar, and in 1836 he published three volumes of Judge Story's decisions, subsequently known as *Sumner's Reports*, and he also edited a periodical called the *American Jurist*. The years between 1837



CHARLES SUMNER

and 1840 were spent in Europe, and the period following was occupied with legal practice in Boston. Sumner first gained note as

an orator in 1845 by a famous address, *The True Grandeur of Nations*. Five years later, as a supporter of the anti-slavery cause, he was elected to the Senate of the United States by a coalition of Free-Soilers and Democrats. He remained there until his death, an active and distinguished champion of freedom.

In May, 1856, his speech *The Crime Against Kansas*, which vigorously attacked slaveholders, brought a violent assault by Preston S. Brooks, a member representing a slaveholding state (South Carolina). The injuries inflicted compelled Sumner to absent himself from public duties for nearly four years and eventually caused his death.

Sumner supported Lincoln and Hamlin and advocated the view of reconstruction known as the theory of "state suicide" (see RECONSTRUCTION); he opposed President Johnson and the home and foreign policy of President Grant, and he supported Greeley in 1872.

SUMPTUARY LAWS, the general term applied to laws to repress extravagance. Such laws were common in ancient times, being directed especially, in both Greece and Rome, against extravagance in dress and in entertainments, the theory being that by regulating expenditures poverty and crime could be checked. Sumptuary laws were revived by Charlemagne, and in France various laws and decrees of a similar nature were passed, down to the reign of Louis XV. In England such laws were passed from the reign of Edward III to the time of the Reformation.

In the United States, the Federal and state constitutions forbid, generally, the passage of sumptuary laws. However, some of the laws passed for the protection of health and safety are sumptuary in character.

SUMTER, S. C., the county seat of Sumter County, forty-three miles southeast of Columbia, on the Atlantic Coast Line, the Carolina, Atlantic & Western and the Southern railroads. The city is in an agricultural region, and is known for its extensive trade in cotton. It contains more than fifty industrial establishments, including cotton mills, a cotton compress, cottonseed oil factories, planing mills and manufactures of telephones, golf sticks, coffins and caskets. The city has a Y. M. C. A. and several academies. The commission form of government was adopted in 1913. Population, 1920, 9,508, in 1930, 11,780.



SUN, the source of heat and light and life, the controlling body in the solar system and the most conspicuous object in the sky, is only one of the thousands of stars—

Which stand as thick as dewdrops on the fields Of heaven

Notwithstanding its importance to us it should be remembered that not only is the sun a star, but that it is by no means one of the largest. Arcturus,

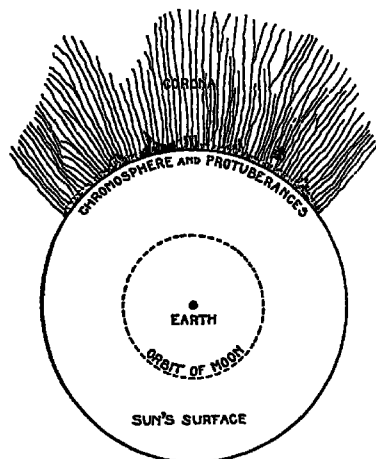
for instance, is possibly 100 times the diameter of the sun and gives out 6,000 times more light. The North Star is probably 200 times as strong as the sun.

Size of the Sun. The sun is more than 865,000 miles in diameter, or 110 times the diameter of the earth, and in volume it is 1,300,000 times the size of the earth. Its density, however, is about $\frac{1}{4}$ that of the earth, and, accordingly, its weight is only 334,000 times as much. Its gravity is 27 times that of the earth, so that if it were possible for a man to get to the surface of the sun, he would weigh more than two tons and would probably be crushed by his own weight. The sun's distance from the earth is about 93,000,000 miles. It turns on its axis once in about 26 days, the equatorial regions rotating more rapidly than the regions farther away from the equator. This curious fact is thought to prove that the sun is a gaseous mass, but it is not thoroughly understood by astronomers.

Structure of the Sun. The vast unknown interior of the sun is, of course, wholly invisible to us, but astronomers can note the shining surface, which they call the *photosphere*; a cloak, or envelope, of burning hydrogen, called the *chromosphere*, which shows red through the spectroscope; irregular *prominences*, connected by the chromosphere and extending up through it, vast planes of hydrogen, thousands of miles high, beside which our earth is but a speck, and a still more vast luminous envelope, called the *corona*, seen in total eclipses, where it shows in hairy, radiating lines, long near the equator and shorter about the poles. The surface of the sun does not appear clear and equally brilliant in all parts, but is mottled with

small patches of greater light distributed in streaks and groups. The spots, which seem to consist of a dark center, surrounded by radiating lines, are irregular in shape and vary greatly in size, from 1,000 to 100,000 miles in diameter. They are not constant in shape, but often split into two parts. Though there are always some spots visible, yet there are periods, recurring at regular intervals, in which the spots are much more numerous. Sometimes a spot is visible for but a few hours, while again it may last for months. The spots probably are depressions in the surface, in which the cooler gases have collected. Two kinds of prominences are seen—the eruptive, like shooting flames, and the cloudlike, which seem to float above the surface. The composition of these prominences and of the corona was discovered by the use of the spectroscope during an eclipse; they are thought to be principally burning hydrogen, yet other gases are probably mingled with it.

From the diagram, the comparative size of the earth and the moon's orbit and the relative shapes and sizes of the visible parts of the sun may be seen. It should be understood that this diagram is a section only, and the



corona, chromosphere and protuberances extend in every direction from the center of the sphere. The discoveries made by the use of the spectroscope have been marvelous and have enabled astronomers to learn what materials enter into the composition of the sun.

It has been shown that these substances are the same as those which enter into the composition of the solid part of the earth. The sun is, then, probably composed of heated gases held together by gravity. It is not thought that the sun burns as we see a piece of wood burn, for there has been time since the earth was first inhabited for the sun to burn and cool off, if that were the case, but there has been no appreciable falling off in temperature. What keeps up the heat we do not know, though many theories have been advanced to account for it. The sun gives off heat in enormous quantities, possibly in millions of years it will begin to cool, and in time lose all heat. Such is the general view of scientists. See ASTRONOMY, SOLAR SYSTEM, STARS.

SUNBURN, an inflammation of the skin to which a reddish hue is imparted and is accompanied by a painful burning sensation in the area affected. It is caused by overexposure to too warm rays of the sun. The severity of the burn is not necessarily proportionate to the length of time the skin is exposed. Light skins are more susceptible to burning than are dark, sometimes dark skin suffers little if any ill effects. This is because in the latter there is more pigment, a protective element. Sunburn may be so severe as to jeopardize life, babies have died as a result of it. For treatment, see BURNS AND SCALDS.

SUNDA ISLANDS, two groups of islands south of the Malay Peninsula. The Greater Sunda group includes Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, Java, Banca and Biliton, the Lesser Sunda Islands are Bali, Lombok, Sumbawa, Flores, Ombai, the Timor group and a number of others. With the exception of a part of Borneo, the islands of both groups belong to the Netherlands. Spices, copra, fruits, coffee, tobacco, sugar, rice and cocoa are exported.

SUN DANCE, a religious ceremony once common among most of the tribes of the Plains Indians of North America. Because of the torturous rites practiced in connection with it, the dance has been forbidden by the United States government. Formerly an entire tribe gathered annually for the ceremony; it was conducted within a circular space enclosed by the tepees of the families assembled, and lasted more than a week. To the sound of drum and singing the stripped and painted performers danced about a

sacred relic for several days without food and with sticks thrust like skewers through their flesh.

SUNDAY. See SABBATH.

SUNDAY, WILLIAM ASHLEY (1863-1935), an evangelistic preacher, popularly known as "Billy" Sunday. Born in Ames, Iowa, and made an orphan by the Civil War, he spent his early years in an Iowa soldiers' home. He was graduated from high school and attended Northwestern University. From 1883 to 1890 he was a professional baseball player, playing on teams of the National League. After his conversion he did Y. M. C. A. work in Chicago from 1891 to 1895, and in 1896 he began preaching, though he was not ordained a Presbyterian minister until 1903. His success became phenomenal. He was criticized for his spectacular behavior before his audiences and for his slang, but no one questioned his sincerity. His appeal was wide, for his message was easy for the average man to understand—a word of cheer for the fallen, and a call to men and women to practice the simple virtues of honesty and duty to their fellows.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS, or BIBLE SCHOOLS. In the United States there are more than 163,000 Sunday Schools with an enrolment of 21,000,000 Protestant members. The 8,000 Canadian schools have a membership of about 900,000. The American Sunday School Union and other agencies are attempting to organize schools for the 15,000,000 children still outside church influence of any kind. Vacation church schools which are related to the Sunday Schools number nearly 15,000 with about 1,200,000 pupils.

To Robert Raikes, an Englishman, is due the credit of originating the modern Sunday School, about 1780. Before he died, in 1811, there were 400,000 children in the Sunday Schools of Great Britain alone. The system met with opposition, as it seemed, to some persons, to interfere with the duties of the home and the keeping of the Sabbath, yet in spite of a council of bishops, called to stop the movement, it spread over the world. In 1824 the American Sunday School Union was formed, and through its influence, within about one hundred years, 150,000 Sunday Schools had been organized and over \$30,000,000 had been expended in distributing Bibles and other religious works.

The first national convention of the Sunday School Union met in New York City in 1832.

In its meeting in 1872 the uniform lesson system was inaugurated. Dr. John H. Vincent, with Mr. Jacobs of Chicago, took the initiatory steps which led to the publication of the *International Series of Lessons*, long used by most Protestant denominations. A merger of Sunday School organizations in 1922 resulted in the formation of the International Council of Religious Education. Most of the Protestant denominations cooperate officially in the work of this organization. An international convention is held every two years.

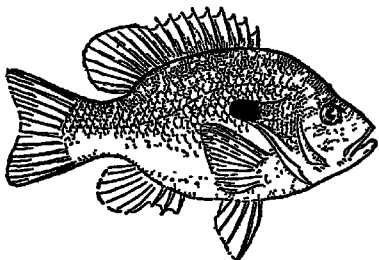
SUNDERLAND, ENGLAND, a seaport and one of the greatest coal-shipping stations in the world. It is situated in Durham County at the mouth of the Wear, 261 miles northwest of London. Sunderland is one of the most important shipbuilding centers in Great Britain. Its fine harbor is defended by many batteries. Among rich, deep coal mines of the vicinity is the deepest one in existence. There are also extensive shipbuilding works, fisheries, iron works and glass factories. Other industries include the manufacture of earthenware, machinery, chemicals, ropes and anchors and other iron ware. Population, 1931, 185,870.

SUNDEW, a group of plants so called because the leaves are covered with a sticky fluid which glistens like dew. When a small insect alights on this sticky substance it is held fast and when it dies the soft parts of its body are absorbed by the plant. An American species is the *round-leaved sundew*, the leaves of which are clustered in a rosette. The tall, slender flower stalks bear rows of small, white blossoms. See **VENUS'S FLYTRAP**; **PITCHER PLANT**.

SUN DIAL, an ancient device for measuring time. The dial consists of two parts, the *face*, or *plane*, and the *back*, or *gnomon*. The face, a plate, usually of metal, which is intended to lie horizontally on a standard, is divided into four quarters, each of the four dividing lines pointing to one of the major points of the compass. The gnomon is usually a triangular plate of metal, placed vertically on the plane in a position parallel to the earth's axis and with one of its angles at the center of the plane. At noon the shadow of the gnomon reaches the line on the face pointing north; at six o'clock in the morning it reaches the line indicating west, and at six o'clock in the evening, the line indicating east. Thus, as the shadow travels around the plate, the hour is shown by its position with refer-

ence to the points of the compass indicated. The sun dial is the oldest known device for measuring time.

SUNFISH, a name applied to several groups of widely varying fishes, both marine and fresh-water. The North American fresh-



SUNFISH

water sunfish, never more than ten inches long, is brightly colored. The common sunfish, which is orange-colored and about seven inches long, is abundant in streams and ponds from Canada to Florida. It delights the amateur angler by its energetic manner of biting. The ocean sunfish, which attains a length of several feet, is of grotesque appearance. This variety is unfit for the table.

SUNFLOWER, a genus of plants of the helianthus family, so called because the blossoms with their large seed disks and long radiating yellow petals bore an ideal resemblance to the sun with its golden rays. These flowers, sometimes a foot in diameter, are borne at the top of tall stout stalks, from six to fifteen feet high, which are nearly hidden by large, heart-shaped leaves. The plants are easily grown from seeds, though the roots are perennial. The species are numerous, but almost all are found in North America. The gigantic sunflower common in gardens is a native of Peru. The seeds form an excellent food for poultry and for cage birds; and an edible oil has also been expressed from them.

SUNSTROKE, a term applied to two different ailments resulting from the overheating of the body; *heat stroke*, or *heat fever*, and *heat exhaustion*, or *heat prostration*.

Heat prostration is characterized by great exhaustion, weakness, faintness and even nausea, followed or accompanied by a remarkable fall in temperature. In these cases the temperature of the body should be raised by external applications of heat and by internal stimulants.

Heat stroke, or *sunstroke*, comes on more suddenly than does heat exhaustion. The patient usually loses consciousness and the temperature rises rapidly, often reaching 115° F. The body is flushed and burning hot. In this case, the temperature of the body should be lowered as rapidly as possible, by sprinkling ice water over the chest and body and by rubbing the limbs with ice or ice water. The patient should then be placed upon a bed and wrapped in warm blankets. If the temperature again rises, the same process should be continued, until the body reaches its normal condition.

If during the heated term more care is taken in eating and drinking many fatalities will be prevented. Excesses of all kinds should be avoided, especially indulgence in alcoholic liquors.

SUPERIOR, *soo pee ri or*, LAKE, the largest expanse of fresh water in the world, and the most westerly and most elevated of the Great Lakes of North America. It washes the shores of the state of Minnesota on the west, those of Wisconsin and the northern peninsula of Michigan on the south, and those of Canada on the north and east. Its greatest length is 420 miles, its greatest breadth, 167 miles, and its area, 31,200 square miles. It is 602 feet above sea level, and has a maximum depth of 1,008 feet. In shape it forms an irregular crescent, dotted with numerous islands toward its northern and southern sides. The northern shore consists of cliffs, varying in height from 300 to 1,000 feet, but the southern shore is low and sandy, although occasionally interrupted by cliffs, among which are the fantastic Pictured Rocks, 300 feet high, one of the greatest natural curiosities of the United States. The waters of the lake are remarkable for their transparency and are well stocked with fish, principally trout, whitefish and sturgeon. The region surrounding the lake is rich in minerals, copper and iron being found in abundance.

Lake Superior discharges into Lake Huron by way of Saint Mary's River, an outlet at the southeast. A drop of about twenty feet from the larger to the smaller lake and a series of rapids at the head of the river have made necessary the construction of the Sault Ste Marie Canal, consisting of a series of locks, four on the American side. Were it not for this canal system, navigation from Lake Superior into the lower lakes would be

impossible. The chief cities on the lake are Duluth, Minn.; Superior, Wis.; Marquette, Mich.; Ashland, Wis.; and the Canadian cities of Port Arthur and Port William. See GREAT LAKES; SAULT STE. MARIE CANAL.

SUPERIOR, Wis., third city in size in the state, the county seat of Douglas County, on Lake Superior and the Saint Louis River, opposite Duluth, Minn., and on the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, the Chicago and North Western, the Duluth, South Shore & Atlantic, the Chicago, Milwaukee & Saint Paul and the Minneapolis, Saint Paul & Sault Ste. Marie railroads. Together with Duluth, Superior has one of the finest harbors in the world, with a water frontage of more than thirty miles. Immense shipments of grain, coal, iron and copper ore make it one of the foremost ports for tonnage in the world. One of its grain elevators has a capacity of 6,500,000 bushels. Industrial establishments include flour and lumber mills, shipyards, packing houses and manufactories of wagons, furniture and various iron and steel products. The city is connected with Duluth by two railroad bridges and ferry. It has two public libraries, a state normal school, business college, two high schools, Federal building, a Carnegie library and three hospitals. In the latter part of the seventeenth century the great explorer, Du R' Hut established a trading post here. The town was first laid out in 1853, by a corporation whose leading members were W. W. Corecoran, Stephen A. Douglas, John C. Breckenridge and other distinguished Southerners. It was incorporated as a city in 1889. A commission form of government is now in operation. Population, 1920, 89,671; in 1930, 36,113, a loss of 9 per cent.

SUPERNATURALISM, *su pur nat' u ral iz'm*, a belief in the supernatural; that is, in supernatural, or, more properly, supernormal phenomena, and in divine revelation through it. The doctrine of supernaturalism has been opposed by naturalists and by some scientists, who maintain that miracles are contrary to natural law and therefore impossible. Both the Old and the New Testament are full of supernaturalism, and the Christian religion is one of those which supports belief in divine revelation through supernormal means.

SUPERSTITION, *su per stish' un*, literally that which stands over one. It is a belief that is based on an irrational foundation, with

a mental background of fear or dread, in most cases. Belief in the effect of the moon on the weather, ascribing ill luck to the number thirteen, considering Friday an unlucky day, and belief that the horseshoe and the rabbit-foot bring good luck, are common superstitions of the harmless variety. In rural communities there are people who believe that seed must be planted when the moon is on the increase because the increase of the moon will cause the crops to increase. On the other hand, the same people believe that weeds and other obnoxious plants should be destroyed when the moon is on the wane because its decrease will insure their complete destruction. These beliefs, which some people take seriously and others deride, are among the most common superstitions.

But there are other superstitions of a more serious nature. These are usually associated with religion, and those who hold them are very tenacious of their beliefs. Among superstitions of this sort are belief in dreams, belief in the influence of the heavenly bodies over one's destiny, belief in the influence of the gods, in horoscopes, witches, and the pursuing vengeance of the laws of nature. Such beliefs are usually founded upon fear. Their influence over the individual is such as to affect his mental attitude towards everything that confronts him, and a person so affected usually lives in constant dread.

What constitutes a superstition in the mind of one is a reality in the mind of another; therefore it is impossible to make a clean-cut division between beliefs that are superstitions and those that are not. Formation of the habit of logical scientific thinking is the best means of ridding the mind of superstitions. Moreover, by frequently entertaining certain superstitions as jests, some people come to look upon them as realities. While such people usually become indignant if accused of being superstitions, they look hopefully upon the horseshoe over the door and carefully treasure the left hind foot of a rabbit.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Alchemy	Magie	Physiognomy
Astrology	Muscle	Spiritualism
Clairvoyance	Reading	Telepathy
Divination	Necromancy	Theosophy
Faith Cure	Palimetry	Trance
Hypnotism	Phrenology	Witchcraft

SUPERVISOR, an elected local officer. In New York, Michigan, and several other states the supervisor is the chief administrative official of a town. The chief county

authority is vested in the board of supervisors, made up of all the supervisors in the county. This type of government has also been adopted, sometimes with modifications, in Wisconsin and other states of the Middle West. In Michigan and Illinois there is a single supervisor for each township; in Minnesota and Wisconsin each township has three supervisors. In Michigan the supervisor is also a tax assessor, and in Illinois he acts as treasurer. In the Southern states, where the county is the unit of local government, the chief authority of the county is wielded by a board of supervisors, each member representing a district.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND. In economics, value is generally considered to be the power given by an article to its possessor to command in exchange for it the labor or the product of the labor of others, one of the chief agencies in determining this value is the law of supply and demand. By this is meant the relation which the quantity of a commodity on hand, with the prospects for its continued production, sustains to the quantity being consumed, with the prospect of continuous consumption. For example, before the outbreak of the World War, woolens and dye-stuffs were manufactured in Europe in large quantities and were imported into the United States in such quantities as to meet the demands of the trade. The prices in these articles varied but little from year to year. So long as these conditions remained uniform the supply and demand were equal and the market was stable. However, with the outbreak of the war the importation of these articles was greatly restricted, and soon ceased altogether. Within a few months the demand for these commodities far exceeded the supply, and their value rapidly increased.

On the other hand, let the demand for a commodity decrease or let some event occur that points clearly to discontinuing the use of the commodity in the near future, and its value will suddenly decrease. New inventions, for instance, render old machines useless, and new discoveries set aside old processes, and in the changes thus brought about, the values of commodities connected with the old methods are changed.

Evidently there can be no absolute standard of value, as there can be no absolute measure of desire or of difficulty; but to avoid rapid and violent fluctuation, values are measured by reference to some one article, that is, an

article is said to be more or less valuable than a given article, according as its possessor would be willing to give more or less of it in exchange for the given article. Usually this article, or medium of measurement of value, is a precious metal and is called *money*. The expression of the value of an article in money is generally called its price. See **ECONOMICS; MONEY**.

SUPREMACY, *suprem'asi*, **ROYAL**, a term which is applied to the authority of the English sovereign over the Established Church of England. Up to the time of the Reformation the Pope had been head of ecclesiastical affairs in England, but in 1534, after the Pope had refused to annul the marriage of Henry VIII and Catharine of Aragon, Henry persuaded Parliament to proclaim him head of the Church. Although during the reign of Mary the Papal authority was again acknowledged, Elizabeth for the second time abolished it, and a new act of supremacy was passed.

SUPREME COURT OF CANADA. The Supreme Court is composed of a chief justice and six puisne (or associate) judges. It is the highest court of appeal and has appellate, civil and criminal jurisdiction throughout the Dominion of Canada. The judges reside at Ottawa, where the Supreme Court holds three sessions each year—the first beginning on the first Tuesday in February, the second on the fourth Tuesday in April, and the third on the first Tuesday in October. In unusual cases, where the question at issue is of exceedingly great importance, appeal may be allowed from the decision of the Dominion Supreme Court to the Privy Council in England, but the court is intended to be, as far as possible, the court for the final settlement of controversies arising from the operation of the constitutional system of the country. By an act passed in 1891, the Governor-General has authority to refer to the Supreme Court important questions relating to provincial legislation, education or any problems of general public interest.

SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES, the highest judicial body in the nation and the head of the judicial department, one of the three departments of the government provided by the Constitution (see page 932), the others being the legislative and the executive.

The legislative department enacts the laws, the executive branch puts them into effect

and enforces them, and the Supreme Court interprets them. This means that if there is a possibility that a law has been passed which violates a constitutional provision, the Supreme Court will determine the constitutionality of that law; if it is deemed a violation, in letter or in spirit, the few men who comprise this court will undo the word of over 500 legislators and declare the law null and void. Such vast responsibility can safely be entrusted only to the wisest legal minds; therefore to this learned group only the most profound constitutional lawyers are supposed to be appointed, which fact has given the Supreme Court the reputation of being the most exalted judicial body in the world.

The Supreme Court is at the head of the entire Federal judicial system for the trial of offenses committed against the United States. This single court could not hope to dispose of all the work which such an obligation would impose on it in a rapidly-growing nation; the Constitution therefore provided that inferior courts should be organized to relieve the higher court of the greater part of such detail. These inferior courts are now ninety-three in number, and are called United States District courts. They are located in every state in the Union and in all outlying possessions. Appeals from their decisions reach, first, courts of appeals, presided over by District Court judges, and some may reach the Supreme Court for determination.

Powers of the Supreme Court. The classes of cases falling under the jurisdiction of this court, in addition to determining the constitutionality of laws, are named in the Constitution. In the following paragraphs the words in heavy-face type are quoted from the Constitution; that which follows is explanatory:

All cases affecting ambassadors, public ministers and consuls. These are officials of the general government whose relations are entirely with foreign governments. Therefore the national government instead of a court of the state in which the litigant may reside should have original jurisdiction.

All cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction. The high seas belong to all nations and an offense committed thereon naturally should be tried by a court representative of the nation involved.

All controversies to which the United States shall be a party. In cases of this nature the entire citizenship of a country is interested and a national tribunal rather than a state court must decide the issues involved.

All controversies between two or more states. To permit a court in one of the contending states to settle such a controversy would be prejudicial to fair judgment. An outside tribunal is necessary to which all parties may appeal.

All controversies between a state and citizens of another state and to controversies between the citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, the same reasons apply as in the case last mentioned.

All controversies between a state or the citizens thereof and foreign states, citizens or subjects. If citizens of any state offend a foreign state or its citizens or subjects, the peace and honor of an entire nation are involved rather than the safety of a single state.

Members of the Court. The President of the United States appoints the members of the Supreme Court, with the approval by majority vote, of the Senate. The head of the Court is termed the Chief Justice; the other members are Associate Justices. The court has increased in personnel from six members, in 1789, to nine. Members are appointed for life, but they may be removed by impeachment for improper behavior. The salary of the Associate Justice is \$20,000; of the Chief Justice, \$20,500. Any member upon reaching the age of seventy may retire and receive \$20,000 yearly for the remainder of his life, provided he has served ten years.

There have been eleven Chief Justices: John Jay, John Rutledge, Oliver Ellsworth, John Marshall, Roger B. Taney, Salmon P. Chase, Morrison R. Waite, Melville W. Fuller, Edward D. White, William H. Taft and Charles Evans Hughes.

SURABAYA, or SOERABAYA, *soo ra bak'ya*, a seaport of Java, situated on the north coast, opposite the island of Madura and at the mouth of the Surabaya River. The chief buildings are the government house, the mint and storehouses. It has a large and safe harbor, which is defended by strong fortifications. Shipbuilding docks and a naval station are located here. The trade is large, and, next to Batavia, it is the most important commercial center of the Dutch East Indies. Population, 1930, 175,000; of this number 15,000 were Europeans, 20,000 were Chinese and 2,680 were Arabs.

SUR'G'ERY, that branch of the healing art which comprises operative measures for the curing of disease. Modern surgery has been developed since the middle of the nineteenth century, or since the discovery of

anesthesia. Before the use of ether and chloroform only those operations were performed that were absolutely necessary, in case of accident or to save the patient's life, because the patient could not withstand the pain. The discoveries of Pasteur in bacteriology, the application of these discoveries to surgery and the formulation of the theory of antiseptics by Sir Joseph Lister removed in a great measure the danger of blood poisoning that was the dread of the surgeon as well as the patient. Before Lister's discoveries, fever, abscesses, blood poisoning, gangrene and other diseases were some of the after-effects of all surgical operations. To-day these after-effects have been prevented, and the field of surgery has been broadened until it extends to every organ and tissue in the human body, "from the crown of the head to the tip of the toe."

What Surgery Does. The chief purposes of surgery are to repair injuries caused by accident; to cure disease by removal of affected minor organs or unnatural growths, such as tumor and cancer in its early stages, to remedy physical defects caused by disease or deformity, to relieve suffering in cases where cure cannot be effected, and in some cases to aid the physician in diagnosis.

Some of the operations and their results are among the greatest triumphs of modern science. Remarkable cures in cases of abdominal diseases have been effected by removing a part or the whole of the diseased organ—as a kidney, the gall bladder or a portion of the intestine. Brain specialists are able to locate tumors, blood clots and other disorders which prevent that organ from discharging some of its functions, and these obstructions are successfully removed. Certain forms of epilepsy caused by disease of the brain have also been cured by operation. The transfusion of blood from the system of a healthy person to that of one who has lost a large quantity of blood by accident, or who is anemic, and skin grafting for the purpose of removing scars, or for the relief of one who has lost skin by a burn, are well-known operations. Crooked limbs are straightened, and healthy organs are transplanted to take the place of diseased parts.

Methods. In operations requiring the use of ether or chloroform, preparation of the patient begins about twenty-four hours before the time set for the operation. The alimentary tract is thoroughly cleansed and

the body bathed with soap and water; then the part to be operated on is washed with a strong antiseptic. Just before the operation this part is again washed with soap and water, followed by the antiseptic. The part is then covered with a sterilized towel until the surgeon is ready to operate. The operating room and everything in it, as well as every one who is to come in contact with the patient, are disinfected. In most cases surgeons and nurses wear antiseptic masks, and now surgeons use rubber gloves that are thoroughly disinfected after each operation. Every precaution is taken to assure the patient a speedy recovery; yet, in major operations, fatalities occur, because the shock to the nervous system is so severe that the patient is unable to overcome it.

History. While modern surgery is of recent development, surgery has been practiced from the earliest times. Herodotus says that the medical art in Egypt was divided into numerous branches, representing each member of the body. The Greeks knew and practiced several important operations, in a mode little behind modern practice. The Romans followed the Greeks and improved upon their methods, besides inventing new operations of considerable difficulty. On the decline of the Roman Empire, the medical art in Europe fell entirely into the hands of the monks, and when, in 1163, the Council of Tours prohibited the clergy from performing any operations, surgery became incorporated with the trade of barber and was reduced to the simplest operations, chiefly that of letting blood. The earliest revival of the science arose from the contact of Europeans with the Eastern nations, particularly the Arabs, and before the close of the eleventh century, Salerno, in Italy, acquired celebrity for a school of medicine. From that time on there was a continual growth in surgical knowledge.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:
 Amputation
 Anesthetic
 Antiseptic
 Bacteria and Bacteriology
 Bandage
 Lithotomy
 Medicine
 Tourniquet
 Transfusion of Blood
 Trophic

SURINAM. See DUTCH GUIANA.

SURROGATE, a judicial officer who has jurisdiction over the probate of wills, the administration and settlement of decedents' estates. In some states he is empowered to appoint and supervise guardians of infants and other legally incompetent individuals.

In American Law. In some states this official is called surrogate, in others, judge of probate, register, judge of the orphans' court, etc. He is ordinarily a county officer, with local jurisdiction limited to his county.

In English Law. In Great Britain this official is a deputy or substitute of the chancellor, bishop, ecclesiastical or admiralty judge, appointed by him to act in his place, as in granting licenses, in probating wills and granting administration of estates and guardianship. See COURTS; PROBATE COURT.

SURVEYING, *surva'ing*, the art of running lines for the purpose of locating boundaries, measuring land and for determining the shape and area of any portion of the earth's surface.

Land surveying, which is confined to small areas, such as that used in measuring land and fixing the sites of buildings and other structures, does not take into consideration the curvature of the earth. *Topographical surveying*, which is on a much more extended scale, is for the purpose of producing maps that will show elevations and depressions of land, the location of bodies of water and other objects. *Railroad surveying* is for locating and determining the course and grades of lines of railway. The purpose of *marine surveying* is to locate shoals and other objects dangerous to navigation, the mapping of the mouths of rivers and entrances to harbors and the determining of depths of water in the courses over which vessels usually pass.

Surveyor's Chain. The unit of measurement in surveying is the Gunter's chain, consisting of 100 links each 7.92 inches long, a total of 66 feet. This explains why so many rural roads are 66 feet wide. A steel band is now more used than the chain, as it is easier to manipulate.

SUSA, *soo'sa*, one of the dead cities of Persia, once the capital of the Persian province of Susiana, or Elam. It occupied a hilly site on a plateau which is to-day known as the province of Khuzistan. The whole section is fruitful and well watered, and excavations show that the city was the site of human habitation even in the Stone Age. After long occupation by Babylonia, Susa first came under Persian rule in the time of Cyrus, and under his successors it became a magnificent city, the chief metropolis of the Persian Empire. When Babylon rose to importance under Alexander, Susa declined. It was still inhabited as late as the Middle

Ages, but is now deserted. It is marked by mounds and a few ruins and a Mohammedan mausoleum known as the Tomb of Daniel.

SUSQUEHANNA RIVER, a river of Pennsylvania, formed by the union of a north and an east branch, which issue respectively from lakes Schuyler and Otsego, in Otsego County, New York. The general course of the Susquehanna is southwest, until it reaches the boundary line of Pennsylvania. From there it crosses the state in an irregular course from north to south. After flowing a short distance through Maryland it enters the head of Chesapeake Bay. There are many important towns along its banks, including Binghamton and Owego, in New York, and Wilkesbarre and Harrisburg, in Pennsylvania. The river is about 500 miles long, and is not navigable

SUTHERLAND, GEORGE (1862-), an American lawyer and statesman, born in England, educated in Utah and in University of Michigan. He was United States Senator (1905-1917). He is the author of *Constitutional Power and World Affairs*. In 1922 President Harding appointed him Associate Justice of the Supreme Court.

SUTLEJ, a river of India, the most easterly and the largest of the five rivers of the Punjab. Its source is near the sources of the Indus, the Ganges and the Brahmaputra. In the upper part of its course it flows westward through the Himalaya region; then it sweeps along the western foot of the Siwalik Hills, whence it has a generally southwest course until it unites with the Chenab, to form the Panjnad, or Five Rivers. After a course of about fifty miles it joins the Indus. The entire length of the stream is about 1,000 miles. In the upper part of its course it is a mountain torrent, but at Felor it widens into a shallow lake. Up to this point it is navigable for river craft. In the lower part of its course the waters are used for irrigation.

SUTTEE, the practice among the Hindus of burning a widow on the funeral pyre of her deceased husband. It was once general in India (at one time compulsory), but was abolished by the British in 1829.

SWALLOW, *swol'lo*, the general name of a family of birds somewhat resembling the swifts, found in all parts of the world except the coldest regions. They have weak feet and legs, but long and strong wings and remarkable powers of flight. The tail is a

little longer than the rest of the body and usually forked. The birds are exceedingly graceful on the wing, wheeling, dipping, soaring rapidly, skimming along near the surface of water and even drinking in flight. Some swallows are migratory, going near the polar regions in summer. They travel in large numbers, resting at night in woods and marshes. Some build in trees; others build stucco nests on the under side of bridges, in barn rafters and such places. The eggs, four or five in number, are white, sometimes spotted with brown. The North American barn swallow is perhaps



BARN SWALLOW

the swiftest of all flyers. The plumage is blue-gray above and chestnut-colored beneath, and the tail is deeply forked. The *tree swallow*, *cliff swallow* and the *purple martin* are familiar residents of the United States and Canada.

SWALLOWING, a muscular act, beginning in the mouth. The tongue is raised against the front part of the hard palate, the uvula takes a horizontal position to close the opening into the nostrils, the epiglottis is pressed down upon the glottis, or opening into the larynx, and when the food reaches the back of the throat it is seized by the involuntary muscles, carried quickly through the pharynx, slowly through the esophagus to the cardiac orifice, which opens to allow the food to enter the stomach. A juggler can drink while standing on his head, because swallowing is a muscular act.

SWAMP. See MARSH.

SWAN, *swan*, the largest bird of the duck family, famous for its grace and beauty on the water. Among the Greeks and Romans the swan was venerated as the sacred bird of Apollo and the Muses. It was once thought that the swan sang beautifully just before its death; but as a matter of fact, all swans have harsh and rather unpleasant notes. They are strong, fierce fighters, defending their nests against preying animals and even against man. In North America there are two wild species, the *whistling swan*, which

has an orange spot between the eyes and the *trumpeter swan*, both of them white, with black bills and legs. The latter, which was



SWAN

at one time quite common in the Western United States, furnishes most of the swan's down for the market. Domestic swans are kept only for their beauty. The *black swan* is a native of Australia.

SWEAT. See PERSPIRATION.

SWEATSHOP SYSTEM, an industrial procedure whereby subcontractors undertake work in their own houses or small workshops, employing others to do it, and profiting by the difference between the contract prices and the wages they pay their assistants. As it is the object of the subcontractor, or sweater, to secure as large a margin of profit as possible, the tendency of the system is to reduce the wages of the worker to the lowest possible limit, on what is known as the piece-work basis. The evils of the sweatshop are long hours, an indefensible wage scale; overcrowding of shops and tenement houses; unsanitary and unfavorable conditions of work; child labor, often causing disease and deformity due to confinement, filth and improper lighting; and the irregularity of the work.

Much of this sort of sweating has been done in industrial history, but its many evils have been mitigated with the advance of corporations, trades unions, factory inspection and legislation. The system appears in the United States among cigar makers, cloak makers and shop tailors, and it has given rise to strikes, out of which has come temporary relief.

Some states have legislated against the use of dwelling tenements for workshops, the overcrowding of workrooms and the employment of children. Massachusetts, New York, Ohio and Illinois have laws which provide

that all rooms for this work be licensed and regularly inspected. The National Recovery Act (NRA) in 1933 outlawed sweatshops, but the law was declared unconstitutional two years later. See **FACTORY AND FACTORY LEGISLATION**.



Peasant Girl

SWEDEN, a kingdom of northern Europe, occupying the eastern and greater portion of the Scandinavian Peninsula. Russia, the Baltic Sea and the Cattegat and Skagerrak border it on the east, south and southwest, and Norway forms the western and northern boundary. Its greatest length is 940 miles; its greatest breadth is 225 miles, and its area is 173,347 square miles, making it about the size of Montana and Maine combined. The coast line exceeds 1,400 miles in extent.

The People. The Swedes are descendants of the Scandinavian branch of the Teutonic peoples who formerly inhabited the northern part of Europe. They are usually tall and well proportioned and have a light complexion, blonde hair and blue eyes. They are characterized by their industry, sobriety, cheerful disposition and general intelligence. They stand among the foremost of the world's progressive peoples. Wherever they have gone they have won a reputation for honesty and thrift.

The language is somewhat different from that of Norway and Denmark. Because of the union of that branch of the Scandinavians forming the Swedes with the Svears of the north and the Gotars of the South, the blending of the native language of these people with the old Scandinavian tongue produced a language somewhat more sonorous than the dialects found in Denmark and Norway, which very closely resemble each other.

The Lutheran Church is the established Church, and nearly all the inhabitants are followers of this creed. Other religions, however, are tolerated, and there are a few communions of the various evangelical denominations, as well as some Roman Catholics.

In 1910 the population was 5,522,405; in 1934, 6,211,566.

Surface and Drainage. The Scandinavian Alps, or Kiölen Mountains, form the northern portion of the boundary between Sweden and Norway. These are low mountains consisting in some places of scarcely more than a high plateau. The highest summits are Sarjektjakko, 6,855 feet, and Kaskasatjakko, 6,809 feet. From the mountain barrier the land slopes by successive terraces toward the east and southeast. The coast is low, level and in some places marshy. It is estimated that nearly one-third of the surface of the country is below a level of thirty feet, while only a small portion of it has a level of 2,000 feet and over. The southern part of the country is generally low.

Sweden has a large number of rivers, and with scarcely an exception these flow in a southeasterly direction. The Tornöa and its northern tributary, the Muonio, form the boundary with Russia. Other important streams in their order, passing southward, are the Lulea, the Skelleftea, the Unea, the Indals and the Dal, flowing into the Gulf of Bothnia; the Klar, rising in Norway and flowing southerly into Lake Venner, and the Gota, discharging the waters of this lake into the Cattegat. The country has a large number of lakes. The most important of these are lakes Venner and Wetter. The former, having an area of over 2,100 square miles, is the third largest lake in Europe. The northern part of the country is studded with lakes, which in form are generally long and narrow. These, as well as most of the streams, are too small to be available for navigation, except near their mouths.

Climate. Considering its latitude, Sweden has a mild climate, though there is a marked difference in the mean annual temperature in its northern and southern extremities, the mean temperature at Stockholm for January being 24¹°, and for July, 63°. In general the summers are hot, and the winters extremely cold; in the northern part of the country the thermometer sometimes falls as far as 40° below zero. There is scarcely any transition between winter and summer or between summer and winter. Spring and autumn, which characterize most temperate countries, here are very short or are lacking altogether. The rainfall averages about 20 inches for the entire country, but it is much heavier in the south, where it is about 35 inches, than in the north, where it seldom exceeds 13 inches. The greatest amount of rain falls during August.

Mineral Resources. Sweden has rich stores of minerals, and mining is one of the most important industries. Iron ore of excellent quality is distributed over the country, but the mines in the north are the most important. The central part of the country has been noted since earliest times in Swedish history for its production of iron and steel. About 7,500,000 tons of iron ore are mined annually, and about 3,200,000 tons are exported. Copper is extensively mined, and gold, silver, manganese and cobalt are found.

Forests and Lumber. At least one-half of the country is timberland. Dense growths of pine, spruce, birch and mountain ash are found on the uplands. Groves of oak border the lakes in the lowlands, and forests of birch are found in the fertile lowlands of the south. Most of the forests are on Crown lands and are controlled by the government. The largest lumber mills are located on the Gulf of Bothnia, and lumbering and other wood-working industries are of great value. They furnish employment for about 42,000 people.

Agriculture. Only a small portion of the land is suitable for cultivation. A large part of the remainder is covered with forests, and some of the rest is suited to grazing. Agriculture gives employment to about one-half of the inhabitants. The farms are generally small, ranging from five to forty-five acres in extent. The best lands are in the southern and central parts of the country, and here the farms, when well tilled, produce as much per acre as the best farms in England. The chief crops are oats, rye, potatoes, barley, wheat and hay and forage crops.

In the parts of the country where pasturage is good, the raising of live stock is important; here dairying receives the attention of a large number of farmers, and considerable quantities of butter are exported to Great Britain. Sugar beets are cultivated in the south, and flax, tobacco and hops are raised successfully in various localities. Agriculture is aided by the government, which establishes agricultural schools and sends teachers of agriculture throughout the country. Primitive methods are found only in remote localities.

Other Industries. Fishing has always been a profitable industry. Herring are taken in large quantities, and salmon abound in the mouths of the northern rivers, where extensive fisheries are established. Salted

and canned fish are among the leading articles of export. Of the manufacturing industries, those connected with the cutting and preparation of lumber and its products are by far the most important. Other important industries include the manufacture of flour, of textiles and foundry and machine shop products. Sweden is noted for its manufacture of iron, which is exported to nearly all countries of the world. Cream separators, lighthouse apparatus, telephone supplies, motors and electrical machinery are manufactured in various cities and towns. There are porcelain factories at Rostrand and Gustavsberg, and glass factories at Kosta and Rejmyre whose wares have a high reputation in foreign markets. The leading industrial centers are Stockholm, Goteborg and Norrköping, all of which have large textile establishments. The most important iron works are at Eskilstuna and Motala.

Transportation and Commerce. Transportation facilities are good. The roads are in excellent condition, and the country has 16,800 miles of railway lines, which connect all of its leading commercial centers and join them with the important seaports of Norway. Canals connect many of the lakes and rivers, so that there are over 2,500 miles of inland waterways. All of these means of transportation give the country adequate facilities for moving its products. Telegraph lines extend throughout the country, and in 1934 there were over 500,000 miles of telephone wires, all but 6,500 being owned by the state.

The commerce is large, considering the size and population of the country. Most of it is maritime, and Swedish ships carry not only the trade of the country, but a considerable part of that of other nations. The leading exports are minerals, metal goods and machinery, live stock, hair, hides and other animal products, lumber and its products, which far exceeds the others. The imports consist of minerals, principally coal, metal goods, machinery, textiles, grain, flour and other food products. The foreign trade is carried on chiefly with Great Britain, Germany, the United States, Russia, France and Denmark.

Education. An excellent system of public schools is maintained, under the direct supervision of the government. Attendance is compulsory, and there is scarcely a person of school age who cannot read and write. In addition to the common schools, two univer-

sities are maintained, one at Upsala and the other at Lund. There are also fifteen normal schools and a number of technical schools, including schools of navigation, textiles, mining, medicine, veterinary science, agriculture and forestry. The deaf and blind are cared for in special institutions maintained by the state.

Literature. The earliest writings in Swedish literature which have been preserved are ancient provincial laws, some of which date from the thirteenth century. There are, too, ballads which were written at a very early date. Like the other countries of Europe, Sweden was affected in the later Middle Ages by the romantic movement in literature, and tales of chivalry were the result. In the sixteenth century little was produced except religious works, but in the century that followed Swedish writers began to be influenced by the writers of other countries, and a more varied literature resulted. The middle eighteenth century produced Swedenborg and Linnaeus, who were, however, of more importance to religion and science than to pure literature. Gustavus III was a patron of letters, and many writers of note were members of the court he assembled. The romantic movement which swept over Europe in the early nineteenth century affected Sweden with the other countries, and the first half of that century was the most noteworthy period in the history of Swedish literature. Tegnér (1782-1846), the author of *Frithiof's Saga*, is the greatest poet Sweden has produced. The best known writers of the modern period are Strindberg, the dramatist, and Selma Lagerlöf, the novelist, who in 1909 won the Nobel Prize for literature (see NOBEL PRIZES).

Government. The government is a constitutional monarchy. The throne is hereditary in the male line of descent, but in case there is no direct heir, a king is chosen by the national legislature. The king is required to be a member of the Lutheran Church and is bound to observe the laws and enforce the same. The legislative department consists of a Diet, comprising two houses, the upper chamber of 150 members chosen by the legislators of the various provinces, for eight years, and the lower chamber of 230 members, chosen for four years by universal suffrage. In choosing the members of the lower chamber about one-third are chosen from the towns and two-thirds from the country. The exec-

utive power is in the hands of the king, who acts under the advice of a council of state consisting of eleven members.

Cities. The chief cities are Stockholm, the capital; Gothenburg and Malmö. These are described elsewhere.

History. Authentic history of Sweden begins about A. D. 1,000, but for three centuries after that time the country was in a turmoil, owing to the constant struggles between the two Teutonic peoples, the Swedes and the Goths, who occupied, respectively, the northern and the southern parts of the peninsula. In the twelfth century Christianity spread through the country, and in their attempts to advance the new religion the Swedes made themselves masters of Finland. In 1397, by the union of Kalmar, Queen Margaret united Sweden, Denmark and Norway as one kingdom. The Swedes were restive under the union, but not until 1523, under Gustavus Vasa, were they able to make themselves independent (See GUSTAVUS I).

From this time the nation made a steady advance in the face of difficulties, despite the succession of weak rulers, the first of whom was Eric XIV, who ruled from 1560 to 1568. Under John III (1568-1592) occurred a reaction to Catholicism, from the Lutheranism which Gustavus had established as the State religion. The people showed their adherence to the new religion, however, by demanding the abdication of John's son, Sigismund, who attempted to restore Catholicism as the State faith. Charles IX (1604-1611) did much to counteract the bad effects which the previous reigns had had on the country, and his son and successor, Gustavus Adolphus (1611-1632), brought Sweden to a point which it had never reached before. With all of its growth in patriotism, commerce and culture, Sweden had made no attempt at territorial expansion, and it was not accorded by the other states of Europe a very high position. Gustavus Adolphus was ambitious, and his ambition, with his faith in Protestantism, was sufficient to draw him into the war which was raging in Germany. Even after the death of Gustavus Adolphus, his policy was carried out, and for some time Sweden was recognized as one of the great powers of Europe. Slight accessions of territory were made under several of the rulers by successes in war, but in 1675 the Swedish armies were completely defeated by the elector of Brandenburg at Fehrbellin.

The first great sovereign after Gustavus Adolphus was Charles XII (king from 1697 to 1718), whose extraordinary military genius drew the eyes of all Europe to Sweden. After his death the country became greatly enfeebled by the struggles of various political factions, and even Gustavus III (1771-1792), who put down the factions and increased the royal power, was unable to restore it fully. Finally, Gustavus IV (1792-1809) proved himself so weak, and yet so stubborn, that he was deposed and was compelled to renounce the crown for his heirs. Charles XIII, the uncle of Gustavus, was elected king, and as he had no heirs, Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's marshals, was chosen crown prince, in the hope of conciliating Napoleon. The effectual aid which Bernadotte rendered the allies in the final overthrow of Napoleon gave Sweden a claim on the Congress of Vienna, and Norway was accordingly taken from Denmark and given to Sweden. Bernadotte came to the throne in 1818, and although, because of his selfish desire for his own advancement, he was never personally popular, he greatly increased the prestige and prosperity of his realm. He was succeeded in 1844 by his son, Oscar I, under whom, as under the two succeeding kings, Charles XV (1859-1872) and Oscar II, prosperity continued. In 1905 Norway broke away from Sweden and became an independent country, but maintained friendly relations with Sweden. During the World War Sweden maintained neutrality. In 1921 the country lost Aland Islands, the League of Nations, after due investigation, allotted them to Finland.

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Charles, XII and XIV	Norway (history)
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Gustave V	Thirty Years' War
Gustavus, I, II,	World War
III, IV	

SWEDENBORGIANS, *swe den bor' je anz*, the followers of Swedenborg, particularly the members of what is called the New Jerusalem Church, or New Church. The belief of the Swedenborgians is as follows: Jesus Christ and God are one, in whom is a trinity, not of persons but of essentials, answering to the soul, the body and the operation of these in a man; that the Scriptures contain an internal or spiritual meaning, which is the Word

existing in heaven; that the key to this is the correspondence between natural and spiritual things, as between effects and their causes; that man is saved by shunning evils as sins and by leading a life according to the ten commandments; that man is a spirit clothed with a natural body for life on earth, and that when he puts off that body at death he continues to live as before, but in the spirit, first in an intermediate state between heaven and hell, but afterwards, when his character, whether good or evil, becomes harmonious throughout, among his like, either in heaven or hell; that the Lord's second coming and the last judgment are spiritual events, which are continually taking place. There are about 9,000 Swedenborgians in the United States.

Emmanuel Swedenborg (1688-1772), whose real name was Swedberg, the founder of the New Jerusalem Church, or sect of Swedenborgians, was the son of Jasper Swedberg, bishop of West Gothland, Sweden. He was born at Stockholm. His education was scientific and his first work was that of assessor in the Royal College of Mines, a position he held till 1749, though he retained the salary through life. Swedberg was master of all the scientific knowledge of his time and wrote voluminously on scientific subjects. In 1719 Queen Ulrica raised his family to the rank of nobility, and the name was changed to Swedenborg.

SWEET ALYSSUM, *a lys'um*, a little trailing plant dear to the heart of every gardener. It grows from four to ten inches high, and blossoms from June to September, in long clusters or bunches of small, white sweet-scented flowers, which are much frequented by bees. It is easy to raise, growing in any ordinary soil, either from seeds or from cuttings. One variety has double flowers, another is noted for its variegated leaves; still another, being dwarfed and bushy, is used perhaps more than any other plant for the borders of flower beds.



SWEET ALYSSUM

SWEET BRIER, a name applied to several species of rose, natives of Europe, but naturalized in the United States. Sweetbrier grows wild, but it is often planted in hedges and gardens, on account of the spicy fragrance of its small leaves and pink flowers. It is also called the *eglantine*.

SWEET CLOVER. See *MELILO*.

SWEET FLAG, a rushlike plant of the *arum* family, found in marshy places throughout the northern hemisphere. The leaves are all long and sword-shaped, and the slender, green stem bears a spike of greenish flowers. The root, which is long, cylindrical and knotted, has a strong aromatic odor and a pungent, bitter taste. It has been employed in medicine since the time of Hippocrates. It is also used by confectioners in making candy and by perfumers in the preparation of aromatic vinegar and other articles. See *ARUM*.

SWEET GUM. See *LIQUIDAMBAR*.

SWEET LOCUST. See *HONEY LOCUST*.

SWEET PEA, one of the most popular of all garden plants, related to the vegetable of the same name. There are about 150 varieties, belonging either to the climbing or the dwarf type. The flowers, which have a delicate fragrance, are white, pink, blue, red, purple and variegated. Sweet peas require a rich, well drained soil, plenty of sunlight and a free circulation of air. The seeds are planted in April in a trench which should be gradually filled as the plant grows in order to give the roots the necessary depth.

SWEET POTATO, a plant of the convolvulus family, a native of the tropics, but now cultivated in all the warmer parts of the world. Columbus carried sweet potatoes to Spain as a gift to Queen Isabella, and by the middle of the sixteenth century they were in general cultivation in that country. The sweet potato has smooth, creeping stems, heart-shaped leaves and a flower that somewhat resembles the morning-glory. The large root constitutes one of the chief American vegetables. Sweet potatoes are raised in nearly every part of the United States, Georgia, Texas, North Carolina, Louisiana, Mississippi, Virginia, and Alabama leading in the production.

SWEET WILLIAM, a popular old-fashioned flower, a member of the pink family. The leaves are small, and the velvety flowers, ranging in color from white to dark red and purple, grown in thick clusters. The wild Sweet William belongs to the phlox family.

SWIFT, the common name of a bird, very much resembling the swallow in outward appearance and habits, but in structure much different and classified by some naturalists with the humming birds, and goatsuckers. Like the swallows, the swifts live principally upon the wing, catching insect food and even gathering material for their nests while in full flight. The common North American



CHIMNEY SWIFT

swifts are the so-called chimney swallows, which build their nests in fireless chimneys of houses, sometimes almost filling the cavity with the dried twigs, which are fastened together with a sticky glue, the saliva of the birds. The swifts hunt over a large territory during the day, and at night they return to their home in the chimney, where they move restlessly about, chattering throughout the night. Their tails are spiny-pointed and are used in climbing and propping themselves against walls. The famous edible birds' nest is built by a swift, almost entirely from its own saliva. The *cliff swift* of Guatemala builds a strange nest, about two feet long and two inches in diameter, with a chamber about six inches in diameter at the top, where the eggs are laid. The entrance is at the lower end.

SWIFT, JONATHAN (1687-1745), the greatest of English satirists, born in Dublin. Of his writings, the one most widely read to-

day is *Gulliver's Travels*. His education at Kilkenny and later at Trinity College, Dublin, was irregular, and it was only by a special dispensation that he was granted a degree. In 1689 he became secretary to Sir William Temple of Moor Park, Surrey, but his pride made this relation a trying one, and after five years he gave up the position and returned to Ireland, was ordained and was given a parish in the Irish Church. He shortly became dissatisfied and re-



JONATHAN SWIFT

turned to Moor Park, where he remained until Temple's death. During this time arose his love for the *Stella* of his writings, Hester Johnson, a relation of Sir William Temple's and an inmate of his home. In 1699 Swift accepted an invitation from the Earl of Berkeley to accompany him to Ireland as chaplain and secretary, and through that nobleman he became vicar of Laracor and Rathbeggan.

The famous *Tale of a Tub*, published in 1704, brought Swift wide notice. But its satire on literary and religious pedantry injured his chances for advancement in the Church. In the years following he was prominent in politics, first as a Whig, later as a Tory and editor of the Tory *Examiner*, exerting a powerful influence by his writings. During a stay in England, from 1710 to 1713, Swift wrote the *Journal to Stella*, a work which throws much light on his life. In these years also he became acquainted with Miss Hester Vanhomrigh, called by him *Vanessa*, a young lady of fortune who fell in love with him and proposed marriage. When he returned to Ireland, she followed him and took up her residence in his neighborhood. At length, through secret means, she became aware of his attachment for Stella, and in desperation she visited Stella and demanded the truth. Swift's anger and the rupture of their friendship brought about her death.

In 1724 the publication of the *Drayner Letters*, in which he opposed the granting of a patent for copper coinage in Ireland, made Swift the hero of the Irish people: two years

later the appearance of *Gulliver's Travels* greatly increased his fame. His exertions to better the condition of the poor in Ireland remained constant until 1742, when the affliction which he had long been dreading came upon him, and his mind failed. His insanity continued until his death, three years later.

SWIMMING, a healthful and a pleasure-giving athletic exercise, a knowledge of the art may enable one to save one's own life and the lives of others, but probably not one-third of the boys and girls learn to swim. The chief obstacles to learning to swim are lack of confidence on part of the learner and fear of the mother, whose attitude is expressed by the old saying, "I would be perfectly willing that Johnny should learn to swim if he could learn without going into the water."

Lack of confidence is easily overcome if the beginner does not go into water over his depth, and if he will keep in mind the fact that the human body, as a whole, is lighter than water, but that some parts of it, especially the head, are heavier than water. The deeper one wades into the water, the greater its buoyant force, as one realizes by wading in until the water is up to the neck, when the feet can scarcely be kept on the bottom. However, when the beginner attempts to lie on the surface in water of this depth, it frequently happens that his feet rise and his head goes down, resulting in a "ducking" and sometimes giving him a fright from which he may not recover for some time. It is therefore wiser for the beginner to learn to lie in the water where it is not more than waist deep.

Wading out to this depth, let the beginner face the shore, then lie face downward in the water, extending the arms above the head, keeping the hands open, palm downward. Fully one-half of the head will be in the water and it will be necessary to hold the breath, but this can be done for a few seconds without any inconvenience. If the feet are drawn up quickly they will place themselves on the bottom and the floater can rise to an erect position at will. After a few exercises of this sort let the beginner open his eyes under water and then begin to paddle gently with his hands. He will observe that he is moving towards the shore.

Before attempting the swimming stroke one should be able to float as described above in perfect confidence. When this confidence has been gained, wade into the water up to

the neck, face the shore, lie in the water as before, but keep the head up so that the mouth is out of the water. As you assume this position extend the arms above the head with the hands together, then, turning the hands palm outward, swing the arms outward and backward at the same time, bringing the legs together till the heels touch. Bring the arms back to their former position and spread the legs, and the stroke is completed. In a short time you will be able to take a number of strokes, and when you have reached this stage you have learned to swim. Continued practice will increase facility of movement and also give confidence. Until one can swim some distance with confidence and without exhaustion he should keep out of water beyond his depth.

Diving. The dictionary says that *diver* means "to plunge headforemost into the water," and that is exactly what many do when diving. Every good swimmer will declare that diving, when one has learned the art, is very enjoyable. A good diver makes his plunge from a support high enough to enable him to enter the water in a nearly vertical position. The arms should be extended above the head, and the body while in the air should be straight, with the muscles as free from tension as possible. One will then enter the water easily and emerge quickly.

The inexperienced diver is likely to take his plunge from a support so near the water that he enters on an oblique line. When this happens, the diver suffers more or less inconvenience by having "the wind knocked out of him," when he strikes the water. A person should become a good swimmer before he attempts diving, and he may learn much by careful observation of experienced divers.

Rescuing from Drowning. If a person is in danger of drowning, and a swimmer goes to his rescue, the latter should remember that the drowning person is not apt to be conscious of what he is doing and may seize his rescuer and drag him down. If, however, there is no great excitement, the swimmer can support and carry the other very easily, if the latter will rest his hands upon the hips of the swimmer and, stretching at full length, keep perfectly quiet. This is a convenient method of bringing out any one who is attacked with weakness or cramp. If the drowning person is unconscious, his body

may be drawn along by the hair or pushed ahead of the swimmer, if far from shore; if near, he can be seized by the arm and drawn out. For treatment of the drowned, see **DROWNING**.

SWINBURNE, ALGERNON CHARLES (1837-1909), an English poet, born in London and educated at Balliol College, Oxford. His first important productions were two dramas, *The Queen Mother* and *Rosamond*, published in 1861. These were followed by the tragedies *Atalanta in Calydon* and *Chastelard* and a volume of verse, *Poems and Ballads*, which excited considerable criticism by reason of the unconventional ideas of morality they contained. Their metrical beauty, however, called for high praise. A series of political poems, including *A Song of Italy*, *Ode on the Proclamation of the French Republic*, *Songs Before Sunrise* and *Songs of Two Nations* reveal an entirely different phase of the author's genius. Among the works of his later years are *Boithwell*, *Mary Stuart*, *Erechtheus*, *Loirene* and *Queen of the Lombards*.

SWINE. See **HOG**.

SWISS GUARD. The Swiss soldiers are famous for bravery, and for this reason they have often been chosen to serve as body guards of royalty. The Swiss Guard organized to protect Louis XIII was annihilated by the populace in an attack on the Tuileries in 1792. Its heroism is commemorated in Thorwaldsen's *Lion of Lucerne*, carved in the face of a rock at Lucerne, Switzerland. The Swiss Guard organized in 1815 as a body guard of Louis XVIII was overwhelmed in the revolution of 1830. The body guard of the Pope at Rome is made up of Swiss soldiers, but it is called the Papal Guard.

SWINTON, WILLIAM (1833-1892), a famous American historian, was born in Scotland, lived as a boy in Canada, then moved to the United States. He wrote a *History of the World, Twelve Decisive Battles of the War* (Civil War), and other histories.

SWISS FAMILY ROBINSON, a story for children, written by J. R. Wyss (1781-1830), of Switzerland, in the German language. It was afterwards translated into French and then into English, has been accepted as a classic, and has been wonderfully popular for many years. The idea of the plot may have been derived from *Robinson Crusoe*, for the two tales are similar in their development.



A Swiss costume

SWITZERLAND, a small country of Southwestern Europe, one of the oldest republics in the world, having maintained a republican form of government for 600 years. Situated in the most mountainous part of the continent, it is famous for the grandeur of its scenery. This and the bracing climate attract many visitors. Because of its attractions for pleasure-seekers it has long been called the playground of Europe.

Switzerland has no seacoasts. North of it lies Germany; to the east is the new Austria; Italy and France form the southern and western borders, respectively.

General Features. Switzerland is the most mountainous country of Europe. Glaciers and perpetual snow cover 800 square miles. The dominating feature is the majestic Alpine range, extending across the central and southern parts of the country. Many of the peaks are more than 15,000 feet high. The famous Jungfrau rises two and a half miles above the sea; Monte Rosa, 15,217 feet. Towering to heights slightly less are Mount Saint Gotthard and the incomparable Matterhorn. The curve formed by the Jura Mountains serves as a great natural boundary in the north and west. Here are innumerable parallel ranges rising to heights approximately 5,000 feet. Long valleys lie between, and great gorges cross them, connecting one valley with another. Pine forests cover the slopes; many of the valleys are clothed in verdure and are rich pasture lands. Here and there, pocketed among the mountains, are small lakes and tarns of profound depths. Between the Juras and the Alps lies a great plateau 1,300 feet above the sea. Here the great mass of the population is to be found.

Owing to the melting snows the country is well supplied with water. Most of the valleys are crossed by streams, many of them broken here and there by picturesque waterfalls. The country is drained by the Rhine, the Rhône, the Ticino and the Inn and their tributaries within its boundaries. The only navigable stream is the Aar, a tributary of

the Rhine. The others, while too swift for navigation, are useful in supplying power for manufacturing. The lakes are remarkable for size, depth and beauty. In the southwest and northeast corners of the country respectively lie Lake Geneva and Lake Constance. Lying partly in Italy are Lake Maggiore and Lake Lugano, in the south. Lakes Neuchâtel, Lucerne, Zurich, Bienne, Brienz and Thun are of slightly less importance.

Climate, Plant and Animal Life. The climate of Switzerland is determined by altitude rather than latitude. In the low valleys the mean annual temperature is about fifty degrees Fahrenheit. This is the natural habitat of olives and grapes, of oaks and chestnuts. Higher up are forests of pine, larch, fir and beech, and rich pastures. Grain matures below 4,000 feet. The chief wild animals are the ibex and chamois. In the high valleys the climate is extremely severe. The limit of perpetual snow is about 9,000 feet.

People. The Swiss are a hardy race, noted for their industry, honesty and skill in the arts. They are of Celtic and Teutonic origin; the Teutonic element being more than double that of the Celtic. The latter are in three main groups—the Gallic, who speak French; the Italian, who speak Italian, and the Romanish, whose language is a Latin dialect. German, spoken by about sixty per cent of the people, is the dominating tongue of the northern provinces of Zurich, Bern and Lucerne; French, spoken by about twenty per cent, is the language of common intercourse in Geneva, Neuchâtel, Fribourg, Valais and Vaud.

Although made up of these diverse elements, the Swiss as a nation are one people. The severe test of national unity at the time of the World War served in the end but to intensify patriotism, to quicken the national consciousness. The melting pot of Europe, Switzerland preserves its national unity unimpaired by the activity of opposing forces within it. This is because the Swiss have a traditional passion for liberty, the common possession of which constitutes one great brotherhood among them. Moreover, the land is owned by the people. From the soil both men and women, working together, coax their meager subsistence from generation to generation. Trades pass from father to son. The limited resources have necessi-

tated frugality and thrift and these have engendered stability.

Cities. Since neither the soil nor climate is adapted to agriculture, there is not a large rural population. Most of the people live in the towns, which are thoroughly cosmopolitan. In them the peoples of all the countries of Europe come together. Zurich, with a population of 312,600, is the largest city; Basel, with 148,063, is next in size. Bern, the capital, and Lausanne are also prominent centers. In point of international importance the chief city of Switzerland is Geneva, situated near the French frontier, on the southern end of Lake Geneva, selected as the seat of the league of nations. Switzerland had a population of 4,066,000 in 1930.

Government. Switzerland is a confederation of twenty-two self-governing cantons, united under a central Federal government. The legislative and executive authority are vested in a parliament of two chambers, the Ständerath, or State Council, consisting of forty-four members, two from each canton; and the Nationalrath, or National Council, consisting of 189 representatives of the people, chosen by direct manhood suffrage for a term of three years. The two houses hold separate sessions in all legislative matters. In joint assembly they constitute the Federal Assembly (*Bundes-Versammlung*), the supreme government of the republic. This body elects a Bundesrath, or Federal Council, of seven for three years, a supreme executive body. The President of the Council, elected to serve one year, is also President of the Republic. The Council also elects a Supreme Court, and the commander in chief of the army. The Federal government can alone contract treaties and declare war. The army, finance, postal system and customs are under its direct control.

For purposes of local government the cantons are divided into districts and communes. With few exceptions each has a legislative and an executive council. The chief executive is called a prefect. In some cantons he is elected by the council of the canton; in others, by popular vote. Civil and criminal law, justice, police, public works and schools are under the jurisdiction of the cantonal authorities. The initiative and referendum have an important place in local legislation.

The neutrality of Switzerland is guaranteed by the Treaty of Vienna (1815) as indispensable to the peace of Europe.

Army. Switzerland has no standing army, but there is a national militia. With few exceptions, every male citizen between the ages of twenty and forty-eight is liable to military service. Exemptions are limited to Federal employes, policemen, clergymen, teachers and those physically unfit, and these pay a certain tax in lieu of service. Men between twenty and thirty-two constitute the *auszug*; those between thirty-two and forty the *landwehr*; those between forty and forty-eight, the *landsturm*. The soldier, on entering the army, is placed in the department of the service for which he seems best fitted—artillery, cavalry, etc. He has about a year's training in one of the recruit schools and afterwards has eleven days' training annually for seven years (eight, if he is a cavalryman). Each man takes home his arms and equipment and is required to keep them in good condition. When not on active duty he reports to the military authorities once a year. Part of Switzerland's army was mobilized at the time of the World War, when there seemed danger that the neutrality of the country would be violated.

Religion and Education. Complete liberty of conscience prevails, Jesuits alone being forbidden to carry on their activities. About fifty-nine per cent of the people are Protestant; forty per cent are Roman Catholics. Jews and non-orthodox make up the remainder. In all the cantons primary education is free; in the northeastern cantons, where the people are mostly Protestant, it is compulsory. In every district there are both primary and secondary schools. There are numerous technical and trade schools, and seven universities, located respectively at Zurich, Bern, Geneva, Fribourg, Basel, Lausanne and Neuchâtel. There is an excellent Federal polytechnic school at Zurich.

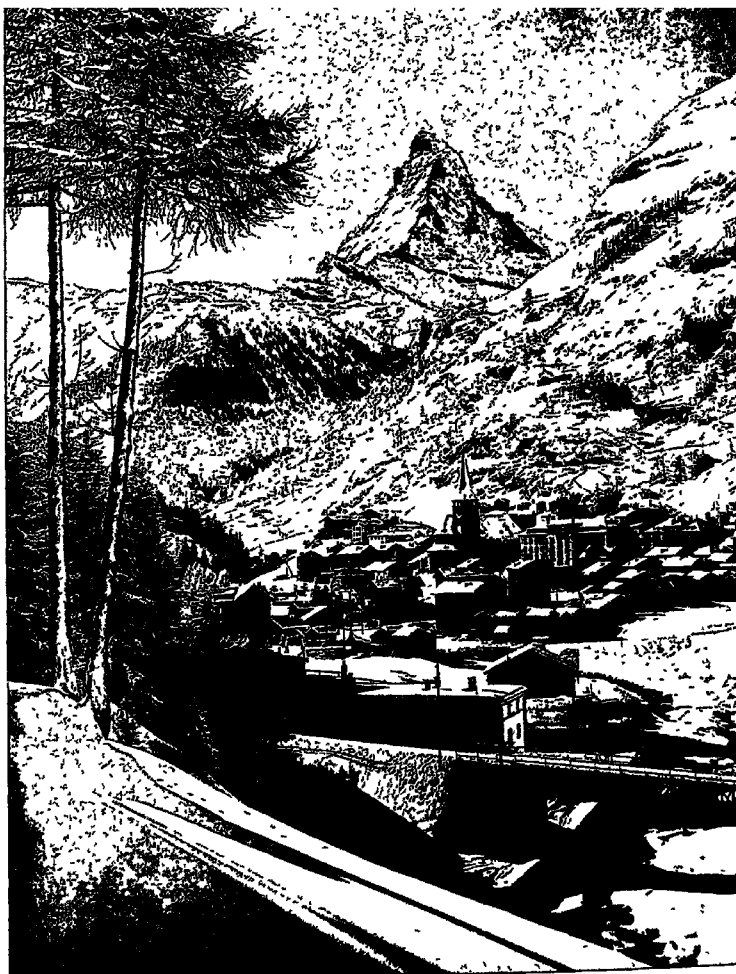
Production and Industry. The Swiss mountains, lakes and rivers render one-fourth of the surface unproductive. The lovely scenery, however, offsets this economic loss by attracting thousands of tourists annually; and the entertaining of visitors at the numerous summer and winter resorts constitutes the chief "industry" of the country. Only about ten per cent of the ground is under cultivation; the rest of the production area is covered with forests and pastures, called "alps." The most important products are cheese and condensed milk. Some rye, oats and potatoes are grown, but the bulk



Travel Magazine—Swiss Federal Railroads

IN SCENIC SWITZERLAND

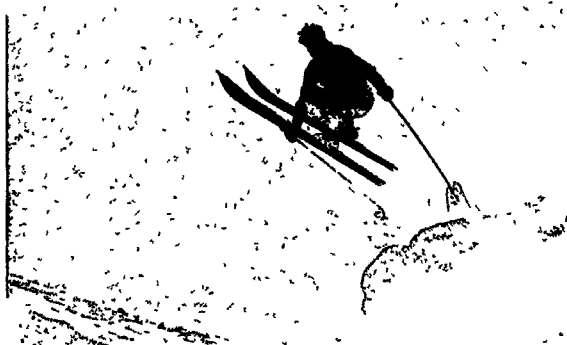
Above The medieval castle of Tarasp commands the beautiful Engadine Valley. Right Peasants in such isolated sections as the Lotschen Valley still speak a language of their own and preserve ancient customs.



Travel Magazine—Perron-Bo

ALPINE GRANDEUR

Above: With the Matterhorn rising majestically in the background this little town of Zermott, nestling in the heart of the Alps, typifies the spirit of this fascinating country. Right: Skiing is the most exhilarating of winter sports. Oftentimes attaining a speed of forty miles an hour, the utmost in iron nerves, muscles and



of the foodstuffs are imported. Good wine is made in several cantons. Of domestic animals, cattle are first in importance. Pigs, goats and sheep are raised in large numbers. The lakes supply quantities of fish.

Salt and asphalt are the leading mineral products. Coal is scarce, but the deficiency is in a measure offset by an abundance of water power, and much attention is given to manufacturing. Swiss laces, embroideries, cotton goods and ribbons find ready acceptance in the world's markets. Watches, toys, jewelry and music boxes are widely known for their excellence. Minor industries are wood carving, straw plaiting, tool and instrument making and the manufacture of leather goods. At the time of the World War, Switzerland, in order to obtain necessary food, fuel and raw materials for its existence, guaranteed that (with few exceptions) no imports from one group of belligerents would be exported to an opposing group.

Transportation. Owing to the tempestuous nature of the streams there is little traffic by water. There are about 3,900 miles of railway, practically all of which is owned and operated by the government. Travel by motors is now commonplace, and the roads are kept in excellent condition. The postal and telegraph systems and radio supply means of internal and foreign communication.

History. The earliest inhabitants mentioned in written history were the Helvetians and Rhaetians, who were subdued by the armies of Rome. As a result of German invasions Switzerland was settled by the Alemanni and Burgundians. In the fifth century part of the country came into possession of the Franks. Under Charlemagne's successors the country was divided between France and Germany, but in the eleventh century it passed to Germany, becoming part of the Holy Roman Empire. As a result of the feudal system of the middle ages the Austrian counts of Hapsburg became powerful in the country. Their rule was burdensome and tyrannical, and in 1291 the men of Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden entered into a defensive league. The union of these three cantons led to a struggle which was to end in Swiss independence.

Open hostilities began early in the fourteenth century, and in the conflicts which followed the Swiss displayed remarkable bravery and heroism. It is to this period that the story of William Tell belongs. In 1315

was fought the Battle of Morgarten, which resulted in a victory for the Swiss and a seventy years' peace. By the middle of the century the Swiss League was reinforced by the addition of five other cantons—Lucerne, Zurich, Glarus, Zug and Bern; and when, in 1386, war again broke out, the Swiss were again able to gain a victory. At the Battle of Sempach (1386), in which Arnold Winkelried deliberately sacrificed his life for the cause of liberty, and at Nafels (1388) the Austrians were overwhelmingly defeated. After this the cantons became the aggressors and wrested Aargau and Thurgau from Austria.

To maintain their independence in spite of the ambitious schemes of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, the Swiss were forced into another conflict, and from this also they emerged victorious. The last war with Austria occurred in 1499. The struggles were severe, but the Swiss again triumphed, and by the Peace of Basel they were politically separated from the Austrian Empire. By 1513 the number of cantons in the federation had increased to thirteen.

Early in the sixteenth century the Reformation, under the leadership of Zwingli and Calvin, began to spread through the country, especially in the northern cantons. The religious differences became so pronounced that war broke out in 1531. The difficulties between the two factions were partially adjusted by the Peace of Westphalia, which closed the Thirty Years' War.

Through the remainder of the seventeenth and the greater part of the eighteenth centuries considerable disorder existed in Switzerland. The religious and political differences of the cantons virtually prevented peaceful growth. In the last years of the eighteenth century the ferment of the French Revolution spread to Switzerland, and in 1798 the ancient confederation was replaced by the Helvetic Republic, which lasted four years. In 1803 Napoleon organized a new confederation, with nineteen cantons, and in 1814, by the Congress of Vienna, the powers acknowledged the independence of Switzerland and guaranteed its neutrality. Again in 1830 and in 1848, Switzerland was affected by the revolutionary movement in France, and a new Federal constitution was introduced in the latter year. This constitution remained in force until 1874, when it gave place to the present constitution.

Switzerland's position as a neutral during the World War was difficult. Its great problem was how to exist; how to obtain from the outside world the fuel, food and raw material on which the nation's life depended. Its next problem was how to remain unified, with its large German, French and Italian elements. The way in which the country overcame its difficulties commanded the respect of the world. Geneva is called the "world's capital," because it is the seat of the League of Nations (which see).

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information:

CITIES	
Basel	Lucerne
Bern	Neuchâtel
Geneva	Zurich
RIVERS AND LAKES	
Constance, Lake	Neuchâtel, Lake of
Geneva, Lake	Rhône
Lucerne, Lake	Rhône
Maggiore, Lake	
MOUNTAINS	
Alps	Mont Blanc
Jungfrau	Rosa, Monte
Matterhorn	Saint Gotthard
MISCELLANEOUS	
Calvin, John	Saint Bernard, Great
Chillon	Sumplin
Mer de Glace	Tell, William
Reformation	Winkelried, Arnold

SWORD, *sohrd*, a weapon used in hand-to-hand encounters, consisting of a steel blade and a hilt, or handle, for wielding it. The blade may be either straight or curved, one-edged or two-edged. The ancient Greek swords were of bronze and later of iron. The Romans had short, straight swords, of finely tempered steel, sharp-pointed and with two cutting edges. When gunpowder was invented and heavy armor was discarded, the rapier came into favor. In the East the weapon most used is the scimitar, having a short, curved blade.

The sword is of much less importance in warfare than formerly, though it is used in all the armies of the world. The Japanese employ a two-edged sword from thirty to thirty-six inches long. The cavalryman of the French, the German and the British army is equipped with a long sword. In the United States army the sword has been replaced by the saber. In the World War hand-to-hand engagements were fought almost entirely with bayonets.

SWORDFISH, *sohrd'fish*, a large salt-water fish found in the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea and, less frequently, in the Pacific Ocean. It has an average length of eight feet and a weight of 250 pounds, though specimens of more than

twice this size and weight have been caught. That part of the fish which gives it its name is the long flat upper jaw, which is sharp-edged and strong and about half the length of the body. With this powerful weapon the fish overcomes its prey—herring, mackerel and menhaden. Even the timbers of ships have been rammed by its "sword." To kill this game fighter with a harpoon is considered fine sport by fishermen. The flesh is coarse, but well flavored.

SYCAMORE, *sik' a mohr*, a tree belonging to the plane tree family, which grows in the United States and Canada from New Brunswick to Florida, as far west as Texas and north into the province of Manitoba. It grows to a height of from seventy to a hundred feet. On the lower part of the tree the bark is brown; above and on the branches it is green and is characterized by a tendency to break off in pieces, exposing a lighter layer of bark underneath. The three-lobed leaves have scalloped edges and deep veins. The stamen-bearing flowers are deep red; the pistil-bearing blossoms are light green touched with red. Sycamore wood, reddish-brown in color, is very durable and is used in furniture-making.

SYDNEY, *sîd'ni*, NOVA SCOTIA, the county seat of Cape Breton County, situated on Cape Breton Island at the head of an excellent harbor, 275 miles northeast of Halifax. It is near extensive coal mines, to which it owes much of its prosperity. It is the terminus of the Canadian National and the Sydney and Glace Bay railways. The chief industries are shipbuilding, meat packing and the manufacture of iron and steel. It is the chief town of Cape Breton Island and is a naval station of some importance. Population, 1931, 23,089.

SYDNEY, NEW SOUTH WALES, the capital of the state, the chief naval station and the oldest city of Australia, and next to Melbourne the most important British city in the southern hemisphere. It is the headquarters of the squadron in Australian waters.

Situated on the southern shore of Port Jackson, five miles from the entrance of the harbor, the city has a beautiful site on a land-locked harbor with rocky shores, and it is defended by modern fortifications. The new town is well laid out and contains a number of beautiful public parks and promenades. In the center of the city is Hyde Park, from which the principal streets radi-

etc. The chief structures are the government building, the parliament house, the mint and the city library. The leading educational institution is the University of Sydney, in Victoria Park. Among the churches, the Cathedral of Saint Andrew and the Roman Catholic Cathedral of Saint Mary are worthy of mention. It contains the finest botanical gardens in Australia and the National Art Gallery. The manufactures include machinery, foundry products, cars, locomotives, stoves, boots and shoes, clothing, textiles, tobacco and malt liquors.

The city was founded in 1788 as a penal colony. In 1842 it was incorporated as a city, and after the discovery of gold in the colony, in 1851, it grew rapidly. It is connected by steamship with all the important ports and has an extensive trade. Population, 1934, 1,240,520, including suburbs but excluding shipping transients.

SYDNEY MINES, NOVA SCOTIA, in Cape Breton County, on the north shore of Sydney Harbor. The Canadian government and the British Empire Steel Company's railways furnish transportation. The last named corporation employs nearly 4,000 men in the mines, furnaces and foundries located here. The annual output of coal is over 900,000 tons. Practically the entire population is dependent on the coal mines, blast furnaces, steel plants, foundries and machine shops. Population, 1931, 7,769.

SYENITE, *syenite*, an igneous rock composed of alkali feldspar with hornblende, augite, or mica. It differs from granite chiefly in the lack of quartz. The name is derived from Syene, Egypt, and typical representatives of the group are found in abundance in Saxony, Sutherlandshire (Scotland), the West Alps and Canada. The Norwegian augite syenites are employed as ornamental building stones and for monumental purposes.

SYLLOGISM, *sil'lo jiz'm*, in logic, a form of reasoning or argument, consisting of three parts, the first two of which are known as *premises* and the third as the *conclusion*, which is derived by joining in thought the two premises. Each premise contains two terms, of which one is common to both and is the means of bringing together the other terms. This common element is called the *middle term*. The subject of the conclusion is known as the *minor term*, and the predicate, as the *major term*. Correspondingly, the

proposition containing the minor term is the *minor premise*, and the proposition containing the major term is the *major premise*. In arranging the syllogism, it is customary to place the major premise first. The following is a good illustration of the arrangement and the method of combining the terms in a syllogism:

Autumn comprises September, October and November (Major Premise)

In the north central states the pleasantest season is autumn (Minor Premise)

Therefore, in the north central states the pleasantest season comprises September, October and November (Conclusion)

Here the middle term, *autumn*, brings into necessary connection the minor term, *in the north central states the pleasantest season*, and the major term, *September, October and November*.

There are six rules for the construction of a syllogism:

(1) Every syllogism must have three terms, no more, no less. If there were, for example, four terms, there would be no middle term, and consequently no conclusion would be possible.

(2) Every syllogism must have but three propositions. If there were more than three propositions, there would be more than three terms, and Rule 1 would be violated.

(3) The middle term must be distributed, that is, it must be referred to as a whole at least once in the premise.

(4) No term that is not distributed in one of the premises must be distributed in the conclusion. The error to which disregard of this rule leads is illustrated in the following:

All rabbits are rodent mammals

No hares are rabbits

Therefore, no hares are rodent mammals

Here the major term, rodent mammals, which is not referred to universally in the major premise, is distributed in the conclusion, that is, an assertion has been made concerning the entire class of rodent mammals, namely, that hares do not belong to this class, which is false.

(5) No conclusion can be drawn from negative premises. For example, if A is not B, and B is not F, no inference of the relation between A and F can be made.

(6) If one premise is negative, the conclusion must be negative.

SYMBOL, a sign by which one knows or infers a thing; an *emblem*. It is commonly a definite, visible figure intended to represent or stand for something else. The common *astronomical symbols* are signs conveniently representing such things as astronomical objects, phases of the moon and astrological terms. Some of these symbols are so ancient that we can find no satisfactory account

of their origin. The symbols for the chief heavenly bodies are as follows: Sun, ☉, Mercury ☿, Venus ♀, Earth ♁ and ☿, Moon ☾, Mars ♂, Ceres ♁, Pallas ♁, Juno ♀, Vesta ♁, Jupiter ♃, Saturn ♄, Uranus ♅, Neptune ♆, Star ✴. Each asteroid, except those given above, is represented by a circle, with a special number within it. The phases of the moon are indicated in this manner: ☾ new moon; ☾ moon in first quarter; ☾ full moon; ☾ moon in last quarter.

The mathematical symbols are the symbols used to make operations in mathematics easier. Some are mere signs of value, like the numerals and the letters of the alphabet; others indicate processes, such as $+$, the sign of addition; and $-$, of subtraction; \times , of multiplication; and \div , of division. There are also signs of deduction, such as \therefore (therefore), and of aggregation ($\{ \}$). Besides these, there are the signs of denominate numbers and the special signs used in geometry, trigonometry and the other branches of mathematics, all of which may be easily found in all good text-books on the subjects.

SYNAGOGUE, *syn' a gog*, the central place of worship for a Jewish community. The synagogue is believed to have originated at the time of the Babylonian captivity, in the sixth century B. C. In New Testament times the synagogues were so constructed that the worshippers, as they entered and as they prayed, looked toward Jerusalem. At the extreme east end was the holy ark, containing copies of the Pentateuch; in front of this was the raised platform, for the reader or preacher. The men sat on one side of the synagogue, and the women sat on the other, a partition five or six feet high dividing them. The chief seats, after which the scribes and Pharisees strove, were situated near the east end. The constitution of the synagogue was congregational, not priestly, and the sacred offices were not hereditary, but were filled according to the choice of the congregation. A college of elders managed the affairs of the synagogue and possessed the power of excommunication. The officiating minister was the chief reader of the prayers, the law and the prophets. The servant of the synagogue, who had general charge of the building, acted on week days as schoolmaster to the young of the congregation. The right of instruction was not strictly confined to the regularly appointed teachers, but the ruler of the synagogue might call upon any

one present to address the people; even a stranger might volunteer to speak. The *Great Synagogue* was an assembly, or council, of 120 members, said to have been founded and presided over by Ezra after the return from the captivity. Their duties are supposed to have been the remodeling of the religious life of the people and the collecting and editing of the ancient sacred books.

SYNCOPE, *sin'ko pe*. See FAINTING.

SYNDICALISM, *sun'dik al'iz'm*, a tenet of radical labor organizations having for its object the gaining of control of all industry by bodies of workers, as the control of mines by mine workers, the control of railroads by railroad workers, etc. The name is derived from *syndicat*, a term applied to a labor union in France where syndicalism is especially strong.

Syndicalism seeks the overthrow of present economic conditions, substituting therefor the industrial commonwealth, in which labor shall have control of all the means of production and appropriate to itself all the profits arising therefrom. Syndicalism teaches that there are only two classes in modern society—the capitalists and the laboring classes. There being no bond of sympathy between them, labor can only secure the enjoyment of its rights by the overthrow of the capitalist class.

Syndicalism does not believe that reform can be secured through legislation, neither does it have faith in revolutionary insurrections. It seeks to secure its ends by means of strikes, boycotts and sabotage, and by any other means that will curtail profits and discourage the capitalist class; and finally, when conditions are ripe for the movement, to overthrow the capitalist system by a general strike.

Standard labor unions have no sympathy with syndicalism, and their members are not admitted to syndicalist organizations. Syndicalism has developed considerable strength in France, Italy and some other European countries. The Industrial Workers of the World (which see), combining some strength in the United States, advocate it. Bolshevism embodies many of the same ideas, to which it adds its own plan of wrecking industry by violence. The movement originated in France in 1892.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Capital	Sabotage
Bolsheviki	Socialism
Labor Organizations	

SYNECDOCHE, *sin ek'doh ke*, a figure of speech in which a part of a thing is used for the whole, or the whole for a part. Thus in the expressions, "All hands on deck" and "A fleet of forty sails," the word *hands* is used for men, and *sails* is used to designate ships. *Marble* is often spoken of for a statue, and the word *roof* is used when referring to a house. See the article **FIGURES OF SPEECH**.

SYNGE, *sing*, JOHN MILLINGTON (1871-1909), an Irish dramatist and poet, born near Dublin and educated there at Trinity College. After spending a number of poverty-stricken years on the Continent, he returned to Ireland, where he soon became associated with W. B. Yeats and Lady Gregory in the movement for the revival of the Irish drama and language. His first plays, *Riders to the Sea* and *In the Shadow of the Glen*, produced in 1905, are remarkable for their sense of the overpowering simplicity of tragedy. *The Playboy of the Western World*, though not his best work, is best-known. *Deirdre*, a play based on a classic Irish legend, is undoubtedly his greatest achievement. *The Well of the Saints*, *the Tinker's Wedding*, a few short poems and essays and a volume on *The Aran Islands* are among his other writings. A man of great imagination and remarkable delicacy of style, Synge is by many considered the greatest Irish poet of his time.

SYNOD, *sin'od*. See **PRESBYTERIANS**.

SYNTAX, *sin'taks*, that division of grammar which considers the arrangement of words to form sentences and the grammatical relations of words in the sentence. In the sentence, "The earth is a globe," the word *earth* is said to be the subject of the verb *is*, and the word *globe* is its predicate complement. The relation of each of these words to the verb is called its *construction*, or *syntax*. Since the subject is a singular noun and the verb is also singular, the latter is used grammatically. If the verb *are*, which is plural, were used, we would say that the sentence contained an error in syntax, or a grammatical error, for verbs must agree with their subjects in number. The study of syntax is thus the foundation of correct usage.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information.

Adjective	Language and Participle
Adverb	Grammar
Article	Interjection
Conjunction	Noun
	Pronoun
	Verb

SYNTHESIS, the union of various elements to form a compound. In philosophy,

the term is applied to the process by which a conclusion is reached through the building of a system of reasoning upon certain premises. It is, therefore, opposite to analysis, which consists in finding the elements or facts or characteristics of which a conclusion or notion is composed. In chemistry synthesis consists in building up a complicated compound from certain elements, and in this case, also, it is opposite to analysis, which is separating of a compound into its constituents.

SYRACUSE, *seer'a kuse*, ITALY, the most famous and powerful city of the ancient western Grecian world. It is situated on the east coast of the island of Sicily, thirty miles south-southeast of Catania. The town is built upon the little island of Ortygia, and is connected with the mainland by a mole. Syracuse of the present day is of little importance. The structures of greatest interest are the cathedral, built about an ancient Doric temple, known as the Temple of Diana, a few old palaces, and a museum of antiquities.

Ancient Syracuse, which at one time had over 500,000 inhabitants, was constructed on a high, triangular plateau, with precipitous sides. The colony was founded by the Corinthians under Archias, 734 B. C. It was captured by the Romans, after a three years' siege, in 212 B. C., and continued as a Roman possession until the downfall of the Empire. In 878 the city was destroyed by the Saracens, and the main portion has never been rebuilt. Population, 1931, 50,096.

SYRACUSE, N. Y., the county seat of Onondaga County, situated at the foot of Onondaga Lake, 143 miles west by north of Albany, on branches of the New York Central and of the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western railways. It is also at the junction of the Erie and Oswego canals (see **NEW YORK STATE BARGE CANAL**). There are two airports, and two major bus lines reach the city. It is built upon a series of low hills and has a beautiful location. It has 85 public parks, some of which are only small plots at the intersection of streets. Burnet Park contains over 120 acres and Lincoln Park 20 acres. Important public buildings are the city hall, the courthouse, the Federal building, the Carnegie Library, the Fine Arts Museum, the home for feeble-minded children, the county orphanage, and the buildings of Syracuse University. There are 11 hospitals in the city.

Syracuse is the fourth city in the state in

industrial importance. Among the products are clothing, machinery, iron and steel, steel pipe, automobiles, chemicals, pottery, boots and shoes, agricultural implements and typewriters. There are 441 industrial establishments in the city.

Near it are the works of the Solvay Process Company that has employed as many as 5,000 workmen in its factories. The capital invested is about \$6,000,000. The products include soda ash, bicarbonate of soda, caustic soda and crystals, coke, tar, ammonia, carbonic acid and picric acid.

Salt is taken from wells 20 miles distant. Lame is secured from Split Rock several miles to the southwest and transported in buckets on overhead wires.

Syracuse is on land formerly occupied by the Onondaga Indians. The locality was visited by a Jesuit missionary in 1642. The first settlement at Syracuse proper was made in 1805, but the town did not reach any importance until after the completion of the Erie Canal. It was incorporated as a village in 1825, and in 1847 it was chartered as a city. It is governed by a mayor and council. Population, 1920, 171,717; in 1930, 209,326, a gain of 22 per cent.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY, an institution of higher learning at Syracuse, N. Y., founded by the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1870. It maintains colleges of liberal arts, fine arts, medicine, law, applied science, forestry, agriculture, education, and schools of library science, oratory, photography, public citizenship and affairs and graduate studies. Research is conducted also at the biological laboratory at Wood's Hole, Mass. The United States Weather Bureau station was instituted here in 1902. The New York State College of Forestry, a state institution, was established as a part of the University in 1911. On the campus of 130 acres is one of the largest stadiums in the United States. Student enrollment is about 9,000; the faculty numbers some 650. The libraries contain over 195,000 volumes.

SYRIA, a country in Asia Minor bordering on the Mediterranean Sea and extending eastward to the Euphrates River and the Arabian Desert. The chief products are wheat, barley, corn, sorghum, oats, olives, silk cocoons, and cotton. Other vegetables and grains are cultivated for local use. The principal fruit trees and the olive, mulberry, lemon, banana and orange.

There seems to be a deficiency of mineral deposits, but there is an abundance of marble and building stone. Water transportation is ample as more than 1,500 ships call at the seaports during a year.

The Alma Dagh Mountains form the northern boundary, and Syria extends to Palestine on the south. For many years Syria, together with Asia Minor and Palestine, were parts of the Turkish Empire. In 1920, Syria was recognized as an independent State, and placed under mandate to France. In 1925, the two territories of Aleppo and Damascus were united to form the Republic of Syria, and in 1930 a constitution was adopted, and a President and Legislature elected; the French Government thereupon notified the League of Nations that it would relinquish its mandate. The population is composed mainly of Moslems; there have been Christians in Syria since the earliest times, the number at present being about 500,000. In Syria as a whole the population is 2,831,622. Damascus is the capital.

Related Articles. Consult the following titles for additional information

Aleppo	Damascus	Lebanon
Arabs	Jaffa	Mountains of
Bedouins	Jerusalem	Palestine
Beirut	Jews	Turkey

SYRIAIC, a dialect or branch of Aramaic, and thus one of the Semitic family of languages. It was a vernacular dialect in Syria during the early centuries of the Christian Era, but it ceased to be spoken as a living language about the tenth century. A very corrupted form of it, however, is still spoken by a few scattered tribes, principally by the Nestorians, of Kurdistan and Persia. Syriac literature had its rise in the first century A. D. At first it was employed in ecclesiastical usage, Biblical translations and commentaries, hymns and liturgies, but in course of time it embraced history, philosophy, grammar, medicine and the natural sciences. The oldest extant work in the language is an incomplete translation of the Bible. The Christian Syriac literature that still remains is very abundant.

SYRINGA, *si ring' ga*, a group of hardy shrubs belonging to the olive family and, according to early botanists, including the syringa, the lilac and the jasmynes. The syringa, which is a favorite garden shrub, bears an abundance of single white flowers, noted for their fragrance. It is common throughout the United States and Southern Canada, except in the arid regions.



T, the twentieth letter in the English alphabet, resembles in form the Phoenician character from which, through the Greek and Latin, it is derived, and with which it is identical in sound. In its phonetic value *t* corresponds most nearly to *d*, and the two are often interchanged in related languages. In combinations with *h*, *t* is pronounced in two ways, as in *thought* and as in *this*. When followed by *t*, *t* often has the sound of *sh*, as in *motion*, and in some words it is silent, as in *listen*.

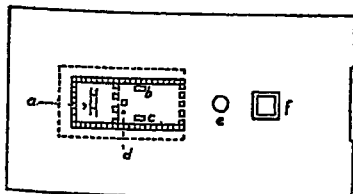
TABERNACLE, *tab'erna-k'l*, in Jewish history, the tent of worship in which the sacred utensils were kept during the wanderings of the Israelites in the desert. It was in the shape of a parallelogram, 45 feet long and 15 feet wide, and it was 15 feet high. Its smaller ends were placed east and west, and its entrance was in the east. Its framework consisted of forty-eight gilded boards of shittim-wood, bound together by golden rings and set into silver sockets. The ceiling

The interior of the tabernacle was divided by a curtain into two compartments, the outer, the "sanctuary" proper, and the inner, the *holy of holies*. In the sanctuary was placed, on the north, the table of show-bread; on the south, the golden candlestick, and in the middle, near the inner curtain, the altar of incense. In the center of the *holy of holies* stood the ark of the covenant.

The tabernacle was situated in a court 150 feet long and 75 feet wide, surrounded by costly screens 7½ feet high, supported by pillars of brass 7½ feet apart, to which the curtains were attached by hooks and fillets of silver. In the outer, or eastern, half of the court stood the altar of burnt offering, and between it and the tabernacle itself was the laver, at which the priests washed their hands and feet before entering the sanctuary.

On the first day of the second year after the Israelites left Egypt, the tabernacle was dedicated. During all their wanderings a cloud rested on it by day, a pillar of fire by night. The Levites had charge of it, taking it down and putting it up at the various stopping places. The tabernacle lost its value and glory after the Philistines captured the ark. From Shiloh it was removed to Nob and then to Gibeon, whence it was taken to Jerusalem at the time of the dedication of Solomon's Temple.

TABERNALES, *FEAST OF*, an autumn festival of the Jews, to commemorate the time when their forefathers dwelt in tents during their sojourn in the Wilderness; it was also a feast of thanksgiving for the harvest and the vintage. The time of the festival fell in the autumn, when all the chief fruits were gathered in, and hence it is often called the "feast of the ingathering." Its duration was strictly only seven days, but it was followed by a day of holy convocation of great solemnity. During the seven days the



PLAN OF TABERNAACLE

- a Ark in the Holy of Holies
- b Table of show-bread.
- c Golden candlestick
- d Altar of incense
- e Laver, or basin for washing.
- f Altar of burnt offering

and walls were covered with a curtain of linen, made in ten pieces. Outside this was a curtain of goats' hair, made in eleven pieces. Over this covering was thrown one made of skins.

people lived in booths erected in the courts of houses, on the roofs and in the court of the Temple. With the final destruction of the Temple, the services attending this, the most joyous festival of the year, have since been conducted in individual synagogues, where a booth decorated with the harvest offerings is built upon the altar.

TABOO', a word used to indicate any object which by religious command may not be touched. The art and the practice were most common in the South Sea Islands. The taboo is applied not only to things with which, because of their evil nature, it is unsafe to come in contact, but also to things which are sacred. Thus, the person of the chief or king is usually tabooed, as is any piece of consecrated ground. In former times, in Polynesia, where the taboo was most in force, the penalty for breaking it was often death; in minor cases, the penalty was a confiscation of the goods of the guilty man. Of course, the practice was much abused, for it gave a priest or chief almost unlimited power over his people and enabled him by pronouncing a certain object tabooed, to gain possession of it for himself.

Taboo may be permanent or temporary, individual, private or public. When an individual is under taboo, whatever he may touch likewise becomes tabooed. The practice of private or public taboo is also noteworthy; as, a river is tabooed until the fishing season is over, a wood until the game is caught, or a field until the harvest is gathered.

TABOR, *tah'bor*, **MOUNT**, the most conspicuous and famous mountain in Galilee, situated in the northern part of Palestine, on the shores of the Sea of Galilee. It rises almost abruptly from the plain of Esdraelon to a height of about 1,000 feet, and it forms nearly a perfect cone. The altitude of the summit above sea level is about 1,850 feet, which affords an inspiring view of Galilee, Samaria and Perea, with their quaint villages, cultivated fields and water courses. Recent excavations show that the sides of the mountain contain many remains of ancient structures. As early Christians believed Tabor to have been the scene of the Transfiguration of Christ, it became the site of churches and monasteries as well as the object of many pilgrimages. A fortified town centuries before the time of Christ occupied its summit.

TABRIZ, *tah breez'*, **PERSIA**, the most important commercial center of Northwestern

Persia and second largest city of the country. During the World War it was captured by the Turks in June, 1918, and held by them until the close of hostilities.

Tabriz is situated on an elevation about 4,500 feet above the sea, thirty miles east of Lake Urmiah. It is surrounded upon three sides by hills. Many ruins attest the destruction caused by earthquakes. The inner section of the city is unattractive, despite its numerous mosques and well-stored bazars, but the suburbs are beautified by gardens and orchards. Much of its former commerce has been diverted to ports on the Caspian Sea, although it still enjoys a good trade in rugs, shawls and dried fruits. The rugs of Tabriz are counted among the finest of Persian rugs (see RUGS). Its leading articles of export are grapes, shawls and rugs. Population estimated at 200,000.

TACHE, *tash' a'*, **ALEXANDER ANTONIN** (1823-1894), a Roman Catholic archbishop, born at Rivière du Loup, QUE., educated at St. Hyacinthe College, Montreal Theological Seminary and Chamby College. He became instructor of mathematics in St. Hyacinthe College in 1842, but resigned in 1844 to become a novice in the Order of the Oblate Fathers. He volunteered for missionary service among the Indians in the Red River Valley, and after an arduous journey reached



ARCHBISHOP TACHE Saint Boniface, in August, 1845, two months after he had left his home on the Saint Lawrence. A great-great-grandson of Louis Joliette, and with the blood of Sieur Varennes de la Verandrye in his veins, it was natural that Taché should become a path-breaker. He was ordained a priest three months after his arrival at Saint Boniface, and soon became known throughout the great west for his zeal, fortitude and real friendship for the Indians, over whom he acquired remarkable influence.

In 1851 he was consecrated Bishop of Arath, after having been summoned to France by the Superior of the Oblate Fathers. In 1852 he returned to the Northwest and a year later became Bishop of Saint Boniface. He urged upon the government the necessity of adjusting the grievances of the Indians

and half-breeds in 1869, but during his absence in Italy in 1870 the Riel rebellion broke out Taché hurried home, and was instrumental in securing peace. Had his advice been followed, trouble could probably have been averted. In 1871, Saint Boniface was made the metropolitan see, and Taché became archbishop of Manitoba. He died at Saint Boniface, and was buried in the Cathedral of Saint Boniface.

TACITUS, *tas'e tus*, **PUBLIUS CORNELIUS** (about 55-about 115), a Roman historian, one of the greatest of all times. Of his education and early life little is known further than the limited facts gleaned from his occasional reference to himself and from a series of letters written to him by his friend and contemporary, the younger Pliny. Under Titus, by whom he was treated with distinguished favor, he became quaestor or sedit; he was praetor under Domitian, and he was consul under Nerva. In 78 he married the daughter of Gnaeus Julius Agricola, the celebrated statesman and general, whose life he afterward wrote. During several years' absence from Rome on provincial business, he probably gained his knowledge of the German people, which formed the basis of his *Germania*. After his return to Rome he lived in the closest intimacy with the younger Pliny. He had a very extensive law practice, and acquired a great reputation as an orator.

Four of his works are still extant: his *Annals*, in sixteen books (of which volumes seven to ten, inclusive, are lost), presenting an account of the principal events in Roman history, from the time of the death of Augustus to that of Nero; *Histories*, of which only four books and a part of the fifth are extant, treating of the year 69 and a part of 70; *Germania*, an account of the geography, manners and institutions of the various German tribes; and *Agricola*, a masterpiece of biography. His style is characterized by conciseness, variety and poetical coloring.

TACKING, in navigation, an operation by which a ship is enabled to beat up against a wind, by a series of zigzag courses, the sails being turned obliquely to the wind, first on one side and then on the other. *Going about* is another term for tacking; while the change is in progress the vessel is said to be *in stays*. All properly built vessels will tack under ordinary conditions of sea and wind. See **SAILBOAT** and **SAILING**.

TACOMA, *ta ko' mah*, **WASH.**, "Lumber Capital of America," third in size among the cities of the state, is the county seat of Pierce County, 28 miles south of Seattle, at the head of Commencement Bay. It is on the Northern Pacific, Chicago, Milwaukee, St Paul & Pacific, Great Northern and Union Pacific railroads. It maintains two airports. It is served by two major bus lines. The city has one of the finest of harbors and occupies a beautiful site on the bay. The snow-capped Olympic Mountains stretch to the west and Mount Rainier, sometimes locally known as *Mount Tacoma*, rises to a height of over 14,000 feet on the southeast. The Puyallup River empties into the bay here and helps to form the spacious harbor, where 68 steamship lines connect the city with all parts of the world.

The city is situated in a region rich in farm lands, timber lands and coal mines. Many of the coal bunkers and immense grain elevators are operated electrically. Tacoma exports wheat in great quantities, flour, lumber, doors, wood pulp and fruit. There are over 400 factories: lumber mills, flour mills, foundries, shipyards, car and machine shops, smelters, refineries, manufactures of furniture and chemicals; there are large railroad repair shops. The municipally owned hydro-electric power plants furnish power at what are claimed to be the lowest rates in the nation.

The city is an important educational center, the seat of the College of Puget Sound, Pacific Lutheran College, Annie Wright Seminary and several important Roman Catholic schools. The Ferry Museum maintained by the state is the outstanding center for study in the history of the Northwest. The two large parks together with other smaller ones contain nearly 1,100 acres. The state hospital for the insane, a government veterans' hospital, an Indian hospital and a clinic are well known institutions. St Peter's Church, built in 1872, the first church in Tacoma, is still in use. Ft Nisqually was established in 1832 as the first post of the Hudson Bay Company in this region; it is situated at Point Defiance. Tacoma was settled about 1869; it became the terminus of the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1873 and was chartered as a city in 1875. It is under a commission form of government. Population, 1920, 96,967; in 1930, 106,817, a gain of 10 per cent.

TACONIC, *ta kon'ik*, **MOUNTAINS**. A

range of mountains forming a part of the boundary between New York and Massachusetts and extending northward into Vermont where they connect with the Green Mountains (which see). The Taconic range is an eastern extension of the highlands of the Hudson. The mountains are low, with rounded tops, and their sides are generally covered with forests or cultivated fields.

TAD'POLE, the larval form in the life history of the frog or toad. Eggs are deposited in March and are fertilized as they are exuded from the female. After it hatches from the egg the tadpole at first looks like a mass of jelly with a head and a tail. While changing from its fish-like appearance it seems to be a newt. In a short time the lungs replace the gills; the tail is absorbed and in its stead legs appear; the change occurs not alone in the external parts but affects internal organs as well. This last stage marks the end of the tadpole metamorphosis and the beginning of the mature period of development. See **FROG**.

TAFFETA, a term which has been applied to various kinds of plain silks, but designates to-day a specific variety, which is thin, glossy and of a fine, plain weave, distinguished from grosgrain, corded silk, and from surah, twilled silk. The name is derived from a Persian word *taftah*, meaning *spun* or *woven* . Taffeta has the same appearance on both sides.

TAFT, LORADO (1860-), an American sculptor, teacher and lecturer, born at Elmhurst, Ill. In 1879 he was graduated from the University of Illinois. In the following year he went to Paris, where he studied for three years at the Ecole des Beaux-Arts. In 1886 he settled in Chicago where he became instructor in sculpture in the Art Institute and lecturer in the University of Chicago.

One of the most widely known of his sculptures is the symbolic group, "*Fountain of the Great Lakes*," on the south facade of the Chicago Art Institute. He also designed "*The Fountain of Time*" for Washington Park, Chicago. Other notable works include the *Washington Monument*, Seattle; *Columbus Memorial Fountain*, Washington, D.C.; *The Blind*, suggested by Masterlinck's drama of that name; *Alma Mater*, at the University of Illinois; *Soldiers' Monument*, Oregon, Ill.; and *The Solitude of the Soul*. He is the author of the *History of American Sculpture* and of *Recent Tendencies in Sculpture*. Mr. Taft was elected to membership in the Na-

tional Academy in 1911. He served as Director of the American Federation of Art, 1914-1917.



TAFT, WILLIAM HOWARD (1857-1930), an American jurist and statesman, the twenty-seventh President of the United States. His career is a good example of the manner in which popular feeling regarding a public official rises and ebbs. No President ever began his service higher in the esteem of the people, or with a finer record of constructive achievement. Yet it

was his misfortune to lose his hold upon large numbers of his admirers early in his administration, and to be overwhelmingly defeated in his contest for reelection. On the other hand, in the years following his retirement from the Presidency he regained the confidence he had lost, even in the cases of some of his bitterest political foes of a former day.

Taft's fall from popular favor may be attributed largely to his conservatism in a period when progressive and even radical tendencies were the order of the day. He believed in making progress slowly, while the people, who had for years been stirred and inspired by the dynamic Roosevelt, were disinclined to admire deliberation. It was unfortunate, too, that Taft preferred to work in harmony with a faction of the Republican party which did not represent the best ideals of the mass of voters. Future historians, however, will probably write down his administration as constructive and forward-looking, and of the man himself they will say that he ranks high among those who have helped to make America a great nation.

Early Life. William Howard Taft was born on September 15, 1857, at Cincinnati, Ohio, of New England ancestry. His father, Alphonso Taft was one of the most distinguished citizens of the city, who became a judge of the Cincinnati superior court, and was appointed successively Secretary of War and Attorney-General by President Grant in 1876. The son attended the public schools of his native city and entered Yale University in 1874, from which, four years later, he was graduated second in a class of 121. In 1880

he ranked with one other for first honors in the graduating class of the Cincinnati Law School, and the same year was admitted to the Ohio bar. The children of the future President are of the same intellectual caliber; his eldest son, Robert, was graduated in 1913 with highest honors at the Harvard Law School, and his daughter, Helen Herron, was appointed dean of Bryn Mawr College in 1917.

Lawyer and Jurist. Before he began the practice of his profession Taft worked for a time as law reporter for the Cincinnati *Times*, owned by his half brother, Charles P. Taft, and later for the Cincinnati *Commercial*. In 1881 he became assistant prosecutor of Hamilton County, and from that time his advance was rapid. By 1887, seven years after his graduation from law school, he had reached the dignity of judge of the Cincinnati superior court, and in 1890 was appointed Solicitor-General of the United States by President Harrison. As Solicitor-General he was called upon to represent the government in several cases of major importance, such as the one involving the Bering Sea fisheries dispute and the test case regarding the constitutionality of the McKinley Tariff Act.

This act had been passed under a new ruling by Speaker Reed, whereby members present in the House were counted as present whether they voted or not. It had been the custom of the opposition to block legislation by creating a state of "no quorum," for members not voting had hitherto been counted absent. Taft argued that such tactics made null and void the clause giving the House the right to compel the attendance of absent members. His contention was sustained by the Supreme Court, and the new ruling of the Speaker was permanently established. For the period between 1892 and 1900 Taft served as judge of the sixth circuit of the newly-created Federal Court of Appeals, established to lessen the burdens of the Supreme Court. In this interval he was called upon to hand down decisions of far-reaching influence, especially in cases involving corporations and organized labor.



WILLIAM HOWARD
TAFT

Governor of the Philippines. Judge Taft had long been a national figure, when, in 1900, President McKinley appointed him head of the civil commission to preserve order in the Philippine Islands, recently ceded by Spain. The choice was widely approved. The commission, after a thorough investigation, restored civil government on July 4, 1901, and its chairman became the first civil governor. Governor Taft's record as colonial administrator added greatly to his popularity and reputation. Under his guidance a government was organized, roads were built, sanitation was introduced, schools, banks and postoffices were established and the good will of the natives was won. To settle the difficulties arising from the disposal of the friars' lands, Governor Taft made a personal visit to Pope Leo XIII, and successfully arranged for their purchase.

Secretary of War. In 1903, while he was still engaged in these important tasks, he was offered a place on the Supreme Court by President Roosevelt. To his regret Governor Taft felt obliged to decline an office entirely to his liking—partly because he knew his work was unfinished, and partly because the people of the islands begged him to remain. A year later, however, he was in a position to accept a place in Roosevelt's Cabinet as head of the War Department, to succeed Elihu Root. The President and his Secretary of War were fast friends and worked in admirable harmony. In 1906 Taft helped the Cuban government settle its internal difficulties by acting temporarily as governor of the island republic, and a year later he established American government in the Panama Canal Zone and visited the Philippines to be present at the first session of the Philippine Legislative Assembly.

Election to the Presidency. President Roosevelt, whose outstanding influence as a party leader was undisputed, was chiefly responsible for the nomination of Secretary Taft as Republican candidate for the Presidency in 1908. He checked the popular movement for his own reelection by declining to be a candidate for a third term, and threw all his influence to his distinguished Cabinet official. Taft was undoubtedly the most popular candidate next to the President himself, and he won both nomination and election easily. James S. Sherman of New York was the candidate for Vice-President. The Republican ticket won over the Democratic by

Administration of William Howard Taft, 1909-1913

THE PRESIDENT

- (1) Birth
- (2) Parentage
- (3) Education
- (4) As a lawyer and judge
- (5) Administrative positions
- (6) Character

II. GOVERNMENTAL AFFAIRS

- (1) Domestic
 - (a) Payne-Aldrich tariff
 - (1) Passed by special session of Congress
 - (2) Not satisfactory, many duties being high
 - (b) The insurgent movement in Congress
 - (1) In the House
 - (a) Changes in the rules
 - (b) Lessened power of the Speaker
 - (2) In the Senate
 - (a) Control by the regular leaders destroyed
 - (c) Commerce Court established
 - (d) Establishment of the Postal Savings system
 - (1) A bank of deposit
 - (2) Pays interest
 - (3) Savings accounts only
 - (e) Conservation a national issue
 - (f) Federal tax on corporations
 - (1) On profits above \$5,000
 - (2) One per cent
 - (3) Annual reports required
 - (g) Investigation of important questions
 - (1) Aldrich Monetary Commission
 - (2) Tariff Commission
 - (h) Prosecutions under the Sherman Anti-Trust Law
 - (1) Dissolution of the "tobacco trust"
 - (2) Dissolution of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey

- (i) New Mexico and Arizona admitted as states
- (j) Children's Bureau created
 - (1) To study conditions
 - (2) To improve them
- (k) Parcel Post established
- (l) Sixteenth Amendment adopted; seventeenth Amendment proposed

(2) Foreign

- (a) Fisheries dispute with Great Britain arbitrated
- (b) Reciprocity with Canada
 - (1) Approved by United States
 - (2) Rejected by Canada
- (c) Treaty with Russia annulled

III. INTERNAL AND LOCAL AFFAIRS

- (1) The President's tour of the West in defense of his policies
- (2) The elections of 1910
- (3) Hudson-Fulton Celebration in commemoration of
 - (a) 300th anniversary of discovery of the Hudson River
 - (b) Centennial of Fulton's "Clermont"
- (4) Champlain Ter-centennial Celebration
- (5) Dedication of the Roosevelt Dam
- (6) Political changes
 - (a) Movement towards reform and reorganization
 - (b) Formation of the Progressive party
- (7) Election of 1912

Questions on Taft

- When was President Taft born?
 From what college did he graduate?
 What public offices did he hold before he became governor of the Philippines?
 Give an account of his work in the Philippines.
 What Cabinet position has he held?
 Describe the parcel post.
 What was the character of the Payne-Aldrich tariff?
 What states have been admitted since 1909?

